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EDITED BY
C. W. VALENTINE

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GROUP FACTORS AMONG ABILITIES INVOLVED IN A SCHOOL CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION.*

By J. H. WILSON.

PART II.

III.—*Third series of subjects: English, French, Arithmetic, Geometry, Chemistry, Art and Handicraft.*

(a) *Data of experiment; (b) Analysis of the data, Tetrad differences, "Factor pattern," Goodness of fit; (c) Summary of results.*

IV.—*Comparative results.*

V.—*General conclusions and remarks.*

III. THIRD SERIES OF SUBJECTS.

The third investigation made use of English, French, Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, Chemistry, Art and Handicraft.

(a) *Data of the Experiment.*

Once again the data were derived from the source described in the first part of this paper. There were, however, only seventy-seven candidates who had taken all these subjects.

(b) *Analysis of the Data.*

The intercorrelations for these eight subjects are presented in Table XVII.

TABLE XVII.
INTERCORRELATIONS.

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Eng- lish.</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>Arith- metic.</i>	<i>Al- gebra.</i>	<i>Geo- metry.</i>	<i>Chem- istry.</i>	<i>Art.</i>
(1) English ...							
(2) French386						
(3) Arithmetic	.199	.426					
(4) Algebra ..	.007	.438	.700				
(5) Geometry .	.190	.539	.545	.688			
(6) Chemistry	.325	.479	.369	.402	.606		
(7) Art.....	.005	.061	.128	.119	.225	.175	
(8) Handicraft	.245	.084	.072	.180	.283	.348	.418

(1) *Approximate Method.*—Following the routine adhered to in the two previous enquiries, the figures in Table XVIII and Table XIX were first obtained.

* I express my deep indebtedness to Professor Godfrey Thomson for many very helpful suggestions.

TABLES XVIII AND XIX.
 "SPECIFIC CORRELATION" (TENTATIVE) AND QUOTIENTS.

Subject.	Eng- lish.	French	Arith- metic.	Al- gebra.	Geo- metry.	Chem- istry.	Art.	Hand- craft.
(1) English		5.3	1.8	1.9	1.5	4.5	0.5	3.0
(2) French381		0.1	0.1	1.1	0.1	2.0	1.3
(3) Arithmetic134	-.012		7.7	1.0	3.1	0.9	1.5
(4) Algebra146	-.014	-.476		4.0	2.8	1.1	0.3
(5) Geometry119	-.083	-.072	-.286		2.4	0.3	2.0
(6) Chemistry323	-.014	-.239	-.203	-.183		0.5	3.5
(7) Art	-.037	-.151	-.061	-.080	-.021	-.041		5.5
(8) Handicraft	-.294	-.097	-.116	-.026	-.151	-.260	-.378	

(2) *Tetrad Differences.* Examination of these results leads to the suggestion that the following groups of subjects might serve as "reference abilities," i.e., exhibit no intercorrelation other than that due to "g":

English, one mathematical subject, Chemistry, and either Art or Handicraft and similar groups with French in place of English.

To these groups must be applied the tetrad difference criterion.

From them there arise thirty-six tetrad differences. Of these, those involving French satisfy the criterion but of those involving English some do, while some do not. These exceptional cases were found attached to those groups which combined both English and Handicraft. For this reason these groups were not used as "reference abilities" from which to calculate values of r_{ag} and r_{asg} .

Fortunately, however, there remain sufficient groups to enable coefficients of saturation to be evaluated without recourse to any other method than that explained in the first part of this investigation.

The values of the saturation coefficients thus obtained, together with the corresponding values of r_{asg} , are collected in Table XX. The equation is $r_{ag}^2 = 1 - r_{asg}^2$.

TABLE XX.
 "COEFFICIENTS OF SATURATION" WITH "g" AND WITH THE "SPECIFIC FACTORS."

Subject.	r_{ag}	r_{asg}
(1) English285	-.959
(2) French581	-.813
(3) Arithmetic541	-.839
(4) Algebra610	-.795
(5) Geometry838	-.534
(6) Chemistry817	-.565
(7) Art186	-.982
(8) Handicraft	-.262	-.965

(3) "*Specific Correlation.*"—Armed with these values, the amounts of the "specific correlation" for each pair of the subjects are readily evaluated. They are given in Table XXI, and in Table XXII (amalgamated with Table XXI) the quotients are to be found.

It will be observed that the coefficient for English and Handicraft is negative and is nearly "significant." This result accounts for the difficulty experienced when treating the tetrad differences, to which reference has already been made.

TABLES XXI AND XXII.

COEFFICIENTS OF "SPECIFIC CORRELATION" AND QUOTIENTS.

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Eng- lish.</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>Arith- metic.</i>	<i>Al- gebra.</i>	<i>Geo- metry.</i>	<i>Chem- istry.</i>	<i>Art.</i>	<i>Handi- craft.</i>
(1) English ..	—	4.0	1.0	3.3	1.0	2.2	0.6	4.6
(2) French ..	.282	—	2.2	1.7	1.6	0.1	0.7	1.3
(3) Arithmetic	.056	.164	—	10.4	14.4	2.1	0.4	1.0
(4) Algebra ..	-.237	.130	.554	—	6.6	2.9	0.0	0.3
(5) Geometry	-.078	.119	.651	.416	—	3.6	1.7	1.6
(6) Chemistry	.169	.009	-.154	-.213	-.261	—	0.5	3.4
(7) Art	-.050	-.058	.032	.001	.131	.041	—	6.1
(8) Handicraft	-.320	-.086	-.086	.026	.122	.245	.389	—

(4) *Further Criteria.*—Once again there has been assumed the presence of a single common "factor." It is necessary, therefore, to set up a "factor pattern" and to test its adequacy to account for the observed facts.

Following the same procedure as heretofore the suggested "factor pattern" has this form:

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Ref.</i>	r_{ag}	e_1	e_2	e_3	<i>Specific factor.</i>
(1) English	m_1	.285	k_{11}	—	—	k_1
(2) French	m_2	.581	k_{21}	—	—	k_2
(3) Arithmetic	m_3	.541	—	k_{32}	—	k_3
(4) Algebra	m_4	.610	—	k_{42}	—	k_4
(5) Geometry	m_5	.838	—	k_{52}	—	k_5
(6) Chemistry	m_6	.817	—	—	—	k_6
(7) Art	m_7	.186	—	—	k_{73}	k_7
(8) Handicraft	m_8	.262	—	—	k_{83}	k_8

The values for the coefficients are as follows :

Subject.	Ref.	r_{ag}	e_1	e_2	e_3	Specific factor.
(1) English	m_1	.285	.447	—	—	.847
(2) French	m_2	.581	.403	—	—	.707
(3) Arithmetic	m_3	.541	—	.438	—	.718
(4) Algebra	m_4	.610	—	.794	—	0
(5) Geometry	m_5	.838	—	.210	—	.564
(6) Chemistry	m_6	.817	—	—	—	.576
(7) Art	m_7	.186	—	—	.556	.810
(8) Handicraft	m_8	.262	—	—	.657	.707

(5) *Goodness of Fit.*—In Table XXIII are given the intercorrelations of the variables as calculated from the values in the "factor pattern."

TABLE XXIII.
CALCULATED INTERCORRELATIONS.

Subject.	Ref.	m_3		m_4				
(1) English			—	—				
(2) French347	—	—				
(3) Arithmetic154	.314	—				
(4) Algebra	m_4	.174	.354	.678	—			
(5) Geometry	m_5	.239	.487	.545	.678			
(6) Chemistry	m_6	.233	.475	.442	.498			
(7) Art	m_7	.053	.108	.101	.114	.156	.152	
(8) Handicraft	m_8	.075	.152	.142	.160	.220	.214	.414

The value of $2\Sigma r+n$ is in this case 24.276. From the "factor pattern" the corresponding quantity is 24.465. The difference is .189.

The mean of the differences of the paired correlation coefficients is .0141 and the standard deviation of these differences is .0860. The greatest difference between the paired coefficients is .315, a value about four times the probable error.

Once more the sum of the squares of the figures in each horizontal row attains the magnitude one as required by theory.

The fit may, therefore, be considered acceptable.

(c) Summary of Results.

(1) Once again there are few "group factors." The mathematical subjects exhibit such "specific correlation" in "significant" amount as they have already done in the previous experiments. In addition, there is evidence of a "group factor" between Art and Handicraft.

(2) The figure for English and French is now only "suggestive."

(3) In this experiment, as in the last, Geometry has the biggest saturation with "g," while Art and Handicraft both exhibit high correlation with their respective "specific factors."

IV. COMPARATIVE RESULTS.

The main statistical results, namely values of r_{ag} and r_{aSa} , have been obtained from three different sets of pupils. Analogous results are collected in Table XXIV.

It will be seen that discrepancies occur. The same examination papers were taken by each of the groups and the only variables are the students (not necessarily the same in each group) and their number. The values of r_{aSa} depend upon those for r_{ag} . The differences are, however, readily accounted for by the magnitude of the probable errors involved.

TABLE XXIV.
COMPARATIVE RESULTS.

Subject.	Set 1, 371 pupils.		Set 2, 110 pupils.		Set 3, 77 pupils.	
	r_{ag}	r_{aSa}	r_{ag}	r_{aSa}	r_{ag}	r_{aSa}
(1) English	—	—	$.585 \pm .043$	$.811$	$.285 \pm .070$	$.959$
(2) French	$.575 \pm .024$	$.820$	$.392 \pm .054$	$.920$	$.581 \pm .050$	$.813$
(3) Algebra	$.591 \pm .022$	$.807$	$.563 \pm .044$	$.826$	$.610 \pm .047$	$.795$
(4) Arithmetic	$.579 \pm .024$	$.815$	—	—	$.541 \pm .053$	$.839$
(5) Geometry	$.575 \pm .024$	$.820$	$.629 \pm .040$	$.777$	$.838 \pm .023$	$.534$
(6) Art	—	—	$.372 \pm .055$	$.928$	$.186 \pm .075$	$.982$

V. GENERAL REMARKS.

(1) An attempt has been made to account for the intercorrelations found among three sets of data, taken from a School Certificate Examination, and involving English, History, Geography, French, Mathematics, Chemistry, Botany, Art, Handicraft, Needlework. To account for the intercorrelations of these subjects the measure of each subject has been considered to be due to the influence of two or more components, and the problem thereupon became that of finding the number of these components and their relative weights in producing the measures. The adequacy of the solution has been tested by the degree to which the values assigned to the components reproduced the original intercorrelations. In effecting the solution, use has been made of direct calculation in many instances; trial and error in others; and throughout an effort has been made to employ the smallest number of components and to be consistent in the allotment of them in the three sets of data.

(2) The purpose of such an analysis is to find which subjects function in a unitary manner so that wide-ranging generalities may be predicted : thus making examinations satisfy the most fundamental scientific requirement.

(3) Adequate goodness of fit has been obtained by the employment in each set of data of (1) a single component common to all subjects, (2) components specific or peculiar to each subject, and (3) components which occur in a group of two or three of the subjects. These last components have been found in the case of English and History, English and French, the mathematical subjects, Art and Handicraft, and Needlework and Handicraft.

(4) With the given data it is impossible to say whether the common component or capacity in one set of data is the same as that in either or both of the others. For purposes of interpretation, lacking further evidence, one common capacity* might be postulated, for such an hypothesis would obey the law of parsimony of assumptions.

(5) As to whether Art, Needlework and Handicraft have a group component or ability and thus constitute a single functional unity the evidence is incomplete because no investigation could be made with Handicraft and Needlework on account of the former subject being confined to boys and the latter to girls.

(6) The number of the pupils involved in the analysis was restricted by introducing the subjects Art, Handicraft and Needlework, which are taken by fewer students than those taking many of the other subjects.[‡] Restricting the number of candidates affects the magnitude of the probable errors. The results of the investigation must, therefore, be considered tentative rather than final.

(7) In endeavouring to account for the group ability or component (additional to that common to all the subjects) which was discovered between English and History, it was found impossible to explain it in terms of a wide language factor or even in terms of verbalness or abstraction. A more feasible explanation is that an interest in English is often accompanied by an interest in History.[§] Also the examiners in History §

* "Capacity" has been used in preference to "ability" for this general component because such a component can only manifest itself through special channels : in other words what is general is a capacity : all abilities are special.

† Due in some measure to restrictions imposed by matriculation requirements : vide also C. W. Valentine, *The Reliability of Examinations* (University of London Press), p. 23.

‡ Vide V. Hazlitt, *Ability* (Methuen), Ch. VI and VII, p. 55 to p. 80. The author considers the importance of the child's early environmental influences upon its special abilities and interests and advances the view that with persons of good general capacity the chances are in favour of the interests being wide.

§ In this connection see also C. W. Valentine, loc. cit., p. 28.

may have been influenced by the presentation of the subject matter—the accuracy of the spelling, the style and phraseology.

The case of English and French is less curious for both are languages.

In that of the mathematical subjects there is some variance with the results of other workers ; but it must be remembered that in Algebra and Geometry as often presented in examinations of this kind there is frequently an admixture of much that is purely arithmetical and, in like manner, in the Geometry there is much use of the symbolization of Algebra. The investigations referred to dealt with the purer aspects of these subjects.*

No explanation has been offered for the group components found in Needlework, Handicraft and Art. A plausible hypothesis is to be found in attributing them to the influence of instincts and interests. In mechanical ability a wide group component has been found which has received such an explanation.† Before accepting such an hypothesis it would be wise to remember that music—where not only endowment but environmental encouragement do differ from individual to individual—has been thoroughly explored without finding an analogous broad ability.

(8) Further interpretation of these results involves the question as to what the examination measures. This question involves (1) the extent to which the examination, or a similar one, given a few days later would give the same results, and (2) the extent to which the examination measures that which it purports to measure.

The first part of this question embraces such problems as the reliability (in its strict sense) of the examination, the objectivity of its marking, the influence upon its findings of the emotional attitude of the candidates towards it and other problems. Adequate treatment of them has been given elsewhere.‡ The main points to bear in mind here are that the examination papers themselves may not be representative tests of the various subjects and that the vagaries of the marking of the different examiners are unknown quantities. Very different figures may be obtained from other tests in the same series of subjects. Here the results of one particular examination are dealt with and, as such, the analysis provides a useful though rough guide to the components to be looked for in the various school subjects.

* *Vide* C. Spearman, *The Abilities of Man* (Macmillan), p. 30 et seq. and references there given ; also Valentine, loc. cit., p. 178 (Appendix 1 (d)).

† *Vide* M. McFarlane, "A Study of Practical Ability." *Brit. Journ. of Psychology*, 1925. Mon. Suppl., Vol. III, No. 8.

‡ e.g., In the experimental field there is the recent admirable work of C. W. Valentine, loc. cit., particularly Ch. II.

The second part of the question focusses attention upon the relative prominence of the general function, component or capacity common to all subjects and that specific or peculiar to one.

Examination of Tables VII, XIII, and XX shows that in all cases but one the partial correlation of the subject with the common or general component is less than that with its other elements. Success in the various subjects of this examination depends more upon specific abilities than upon general capacity. In those of Art, Needlework and Handicraft the values of the partial correlations with their specific parts are so high as to suggest that for satisfactory tests of the specific abilities here involved there may not be long to wait. The same cannot be said of the other subjects, for the magnitude of the probable error is such that for adequate measurement of a specific component its partial correlation with the subject must attain at least the value .990.

The conclusion to be arrived at is that the examination measures neither the pupils' general capacity nor their specific abilities at all adequately.

On account of the mathematical connection between the relative weights of the components of a subject it follows that any improvement in the magnitude of the influence of the general function may only be attained by a sacrifice in that of the specific ability. Both cannot be measured effectively by the same examination paper. Examiners should, therefore, devote their energies to constructing, on the one hand, more and more efficient tests of the general function and, on the other, to producing better and still better measures of the specific abilities involved. An examination might then be given in two parts,* one assessing the general capacity of the candidates and the other their specific abilities.

The great merit of the former lies in the fact that in investigations using intelligence tests, the amount of the common capacity possessed by a pupil has been found to remain, relative to other pupils, constant,† and the same may be true of the common element found in the school subjects. On Spearman's view of the nature of this common capacity the subject most highly saturated with it involves the most important relations in the most varied manner. Educationally, perhaps, such a subject would be the most valuable and, if so, a means of selecting the subjects of the school curriculum would be to hand. With the same

* The same conclusion has been reached by Professor Valentine by a different line of argument, *vide loc. cit.*, pp. 30, 34, and 95.

† *Vide* C. S. Slocombe, "The Constancy of 'g' General Intelligence." *Brit. Journ. Psych.*, Vol. XVII, Part 2, October, 1926, p. 93.

Also thesis by the author in the London University Library on "Influence of Coaching and Practice on Intelligence Tests," 1929.

assumption as to the strictness of the parallel, additional advantages for this type of test are to be found in that (1) their results are not readily susceptible to the influence of *ad hoc* preparation,* and they supply a more reliable prognosis of later academical success† than do those of ordinary examinations, and (2) investigations into the principles to be followed in their formation have been instituted.‡

As to the latter, the discovery of efficient tests of special abilities is theoretically§ and practically|| of the utmost importance. Theoretically, because the nature of these special abilities is still undetermined, and practically, because upon the training of such abilities are students most likely to be differentiated for vocational guidance and for later academic success, the more especially as the general capacities of the students have already been graded by the school system of promotion. Such tests are being devised** and may eventually prove of further help in improving the validity of examinations and in elucidating the nature of special ability.

(9) There still remains one question upon which these results may throw a little light. In the examination the subjects are grouped. Thus in Group I are found English, History, Scripture and (sometimes) Geography; in Group II, Languages other than English; Group III contains Mathematics and the sciences; Group IV has assigned to it Music, Art, Handicraft and the Domestic Sciences. The question arises as to whether such groups are to be considered as possessing a unitary function. The evidence here presented points to a negative answer in all cases except, perhaps, in that of Group IV.

* *Vide* the author's thesis just quoted. In this connection reference may be made to Professor Valentine's remarks on the results of special coaching or cramming, loc. cit., p. 33; also see his references on p. 99 and remarks on p. 145.

† The general problem of the relation between general capacity and scholastic achievement is a very wide one, with a considerable literature. The reader is therefore referred to R. Pintner, *Intelligence Testing* (London, 1924), p. 276, and subsequent references.

‡ *Vide* C. Spearman, *The Nature of Intelligence and the Principles of Cognition* (Macmillan); J. J. Strasheim, *A New Method of Mental Testing* (Warwick and York), 1926; S. A. Hamid, "Some Factors of Effectiveness in Mental ('Intelligence') Tests," *Brit. Journ. Psych.*, Vol. XVI, Part 2, p. 100. V. Hazlitt, *Ability* (Methuen), p. 76.

§ *Vide* for example, V. Hazlitt, loc. cit., Ch. V and VI.

|| *Vide* for example, V. Hazlitt, loc. cit. pp. 77 to 79; also C. W. Valentine, loc. cit. p. 79, p. 165, p. 171, and especially p. 145.

** *Vide* for example, references in Professor Valentine's book, p. 96. Others for University Students are given in Miss Hazlitt's book, Part 2, Ch. II.

RÉSUMÉ.

LES FACTEURS CENTRAUX PARMI LES APTITUDES IMPLIQUÉES
DANS UN EXAMEN DU "SCHOOL CERTIFICATE."

On a analysé trois groupes de données recueillies d'un examen du "School Certificate." Les sujets compris : l'Anglais ; l'Histoire ; la Géographie ; le Français ; l'Algèbre ; la Géométrie ; la Chimie ; la Botanique ; le Dessin ; le Travail de l'Aiguille ; et les Travaux Manuels.

L'analyse a tenté (en attribuant à l'influence d'un constituant, ou de plusieurs, la mesure de chaque branche) d'expliquer les corrélations entre ces branches. On a estimé la valeur relative des constituants, et leur validité a été éprouvée par le degré auquel ils reproduisent la corrélation originelle.

Les données ont ainsi été expliquées en termes d'une capacité ou d'une fonction commune et générale, de constituants ou d'aptitudes spéciaux, et de certains constituants ou aptitudes centraux, qui sont communs à deux branches ou à plus encore. Une aptitude commune se révéla parmi les branches des mathématiques, une entre l'Anglais et l'Histoire, une troisième entre l'Anglais et le Français, une quatrième entre le Dessin et les Travaux Manuels et une cinquième entre le Dessin et le Travail à l'Aiguille.

On examine ces aptitudes communes, et l'on considère l'importance de l'ensemble des résultats pour la théorie et la pratique de la pédagogie.

ÜBERSICHT.

GRUPPENFAKTOREN UNTER IN EINER ENGLISCHEN ERSTEN
SCHULPRÜFUNG ENTHALTENEN FÄHIGKEITEN.

Man hat drei von einer englischen Ersten Prüfung entnommene Gattungen von Gegebenheiten analysiert. Die in Betracht gezogenen Lehrfächer waren Englisch, Geschichte, Erdkunde, Französisch, Algebra, Geometrie, Chemie, Pflanzenkunde, Zeichnen, Nadelarbeit und Handarbeit.

Die Analyse hat versucht (indem man die Weite jedes Gegenstands dem Einfluss zweier oder mehrerer Komponenten zuschreibt) die Interkorrelationen dieser Gegenstände zu erklären. Relative Werte der Bestandteile sind abgeschätzt und ihre Zulänglichkeit ist durch den Grad geprüft worden, in dem sie die ursprünglichen Korrelationen wieder hervorbrachten.

Man hat die Gegebenheiten also mit Worten einer allgemeinen Fähigkeit oder Funktion, besonderer Bestandteile oder Fähigkeiten und gewisser Gruppenbestandteile oder Fähigkeiten, die zwei oder mehreren Gegenständen gemeinsam sind, auseinandergesetzt. Eine Gruppenfähigkeit wurde unter den mathematischen Fächern gefunden, eine zwischen Englisch und Französisch, eine vierte zwischen Zeichnen und Handarbeit und eine fünfte zwischen Zeichnen und Nähen.

Diese Gruppenfähigkeiten werden besprochen und die Tragweite sämtlicher Ergebnisse für die erzieherische Theorie und Praxis wird in Betracht gezogen.

PRE-COLLEGE TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND OTHER FACTORS IN THE TEACHING SUCCESS OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS.

BY ARTHUR PINSENT.

(From the Department of Education, University College, Aberystwyth.)

PART I.

- I.—*Outline of problem and data available for analysis.*
- II.—*Effect of pre-college teaching experience on teaching grade achieved by students in professional year.*
- III.—*Relative influence of :*
 - (a) *Age.*
 - (b) *Factors measured by intelligence test.*
 - (c) *Academic ability.*
 - (d) *Theoretical instruction in professional subjects.*
- IV.—*Summary of results and conclusions. (Part I.)*

I.—OUTLINE OF PROBLEM AND DATA AVAILABLE FOR ANALYSIS.

THE improvement of the opportunities for secondary training since 1902, and more particularly the development of higher certificate courses since about 1922, have altered the conditions of recruitment for the teaching profession, and raised problems in connection with the professional preparation of teachers. One problem is connected with the value of practical teaching experience obtained before the professional training of the intending teacher. There used to be no question about this. The experience was considered essential for elementary, but quite unnecessary for secondary school teachers. Now, however, there is a conflict of opinion. This problem was discussed by the Departmental Committee on the Training of Teachers. It was found that "on the one hand the teachers concerned in the elementary schools, secondary schools and training colleges are as a whole against it, though there are individual exceptions. Its principal supporters are found among witnesses representing local authorities, though these are by no means unanimous."* It is asserted that "no theoretical training is likely to be realized and properly assimilated by those who receive it unless

* Report, pp. 71, 72.

they have had experience of practical work and its difficulties beforehand."* Further it is supposed to eliminate those who are unfit for the work of teaching. Some teachers have stated that they would have been able to understand the professional theory courses better if they had had previous practical experience.†

The Departmental Report suggests, however, that the argument that practice should precede theory is not necessarily true of all or any practice. Bad habits of teaching and a false perspective may be acquired and practice under difficulties at the beginning without a clear notion of the end in view may be unfairly discouraging.‡

The problem was brought to my notice in connection with the selection of candidates for admission to a University Department. It has been the custom in this department to prefer candidates for admission who have had some teaching experience in some recognized capacity. However, some of the Heads of secondary schools from which the candidates came expressed the opinion strongly that from their observation of individual pupils they feared that some of the candidates who were admitted on the ground of previous experience and matriculation were not so good as others who had remained at school to pursue the higher certificate courses. To this it might be objected that since the secondary school Head was strongly interested in developing his higher courses he would naturally wish to keep as many pupils as possible in school for the extended course. Further, there was the possibility that the Heads and the subject teachers in the secondary schools would be prejudiced against the pre-college experience on the ground that the break of a year or more in the continuity of the studies of the prospective teachers would interfere with their chances of obtaining a good honours degree at the end of their academic period. However, the opinions against the preference of candidates with the teaching experience had to be weighed carefully and if the system of selection was to be continued it must be justified.

So far as one could ascertain, most, if not all of the views for or against the pre-college experience were based upon opinion which could easily be influenced by prejudice. There seemed to be no concrete

* Some training colleges and university departments give preference to candidates for admission who have had some practical teaching experience. See, for example, the prospectus of the City of Sheffield Training College.

Examples of the attitude of L.E.A. officials may be seen in reports of public speeches by the Director for Burnley (*Times Educational Supplement*, January 28th, 1928), and the Director for Ealing (*Education*, January 22nd, 1932, p. 114.)

Ibid, p. 71.

†M. Phillips: *Professional Courses in the Training of Teachers*. Part I. *This Journal*, Vol. I, Part 3, p. 231.

‡Ibid., pp. 72, 73.

evidence available. Several papers have appeared in American journals describing attempts to arrive at an estimate of the value of various factors in producing teaching success, but these did not include pre-college experience. I decided therefore to analyse the records of some 800 students who have passed through the training department at Aberystwyth, to see what light, if any, was to be had on this problem. On preliminary analysis, the position was not so simple as it appears at first sight. It is obviously unsatisfactory to compare the teaching assessments of the experienced and the inexperienced groups since these groups may not be strictly comparable. Intrinsic factors such as age, sex, academic ability, intelligence, social status and *savoir-vivre*, character qualities and so forth may be selected by the conditions of entry. The teaching experience, or the higher courses at the secondary school, without having any direct bearing upon the improvement of the teaching performance at the end of the professional year, may quite easily select types of candidate who would be successful or not, irrespective of the pre-college experience. For example, if the student teachers were all below the average in intelligence and academic ability, and the higher course candidates all above the average, then the latter might derive more benefit than the former from any experience, and might use the teaching practice which all students undergo in their professional year to such purpose as to mask the effects of the pre-college experience upon the student teachers. It might then be argued that the pre-college experience was valueless and produce apparently convincing statistics to prove it.

The investigation here reported deals with the records of 399 men and 362 women students admitted to the department from session 1922-23 to session 1929-30. The sample in each professional year includes the following types :

- (a) Four-year students admitted to the department in their first, second, or third academic years.
- (b) One-year post-graduate students.
- (c) A few reduced course students.

Any of these groups may contain both those having some pre-college experience as pupil teachers, student teachers, and uncertificated teachers ; and those with no such experience.

The measures available for analysis include :

- (a) Length and type of pre-college experience.
- (b) Teaching grade assessed after the second period of school practice in the professional year.
- (c) Age.

- (d) Academic record achieved.
- (e) Marks in the papers in theory, practice of education, and special methods of teaching taken at the end of the professional year. These papers are at the standard of a university diploma in education.
- (f) Marks obtained in a series of mental tests given to all the students available at the beginning of each professional year.*

An attempt has been made to estimate the effect of pre-college experience upon the teaching grade achieved by students in their professional year after allowing for the possible influence of age, academic ability, intelligence, and theoretical instruction. Further, the following points have been investigated :

- (a) What is the relative value of student teacher and uncertificated teacher experience.
- (b) What effect, if any, has the pre-college experience had upon
 - (i) The academic records of the students.
 - (ii) The scores in the theory of education papers set in the professional examinations at the end of the fourth year.
- (c) Are any of the factors normally available to the selection committees choosing candidates for admission, sufficiently closely related to the final teaching grade achieved, to be useful in predicting future teaching success.

The numbers dealt with are reasonably large, and the students have been drawn from a wide area, from all sorts of schools, both large urban and small rural types. They present, therefore, the results of experience gained in places representing average school conditions. The majority of the staff of the training department has remained unchanged over the whole of the time covered by the accumulated results, so that there has been a continuity of policy and a similarity of standards of assessment. For purposes of comparison some of the results of American investigators dealing with specially prepared data have been shown at the end of this paper. (See Appendix at end of Part II.)

II.—EFFECT OF PRE-COLLEGE EXPERIENCE ON TEACHING GRADE ACHIEVED BY STUDENTS IN THE PROFESSIONAL YEAR.

All students in the department are required to undergo periods of teaching practice during the professional year making a minimum of sixty days for inexperienced students and forty days for those who

* Mental tests had been given to students in the training department since 1921 by the late Mr. D. J. Saer in connection with his work on Bilingualism. His results are incorporated in the test material discussed later in this paper.

have had one year or more previous teaching experience in some recognized capacity. At the end of the practice period in the second term the students' teaching grade is assessed according to the series, A, B+, B, B—, C+, C, C—, D and E. The A grade is reserved for students who show outstanding qualities of personality, character, and teaching capacity. C is the mark given to the average, those who seem likely to become ordinarily satisfactory practitioners after leaving college. It is an open question how far these marks will be an accurate prediction of success in professional work. For one thing, teaching in schools is too often assessed by examination results rather than by any real professional standards, and it is quite possible that an A teacher who is really an artist at his work will react strongly against the examination grind that characterizes some schools. Still the grades achieved in the professional year are used widely as a basis for appointment, and our experience has been that in the long run, opinions of teaching capacity based upon the grades achieved in the professional year do serve as a guide to future capacity. The exact meaning to be given to any given teaching grade is difficult to define, but it includes personality traits, e.g., charm of manner, force of personality, sympathy with children, tact, quickness in the uptake; mental traits, e.g., clearness of thinking and exposition, system, alertness of mind, power of self criticism; and finally the command of the technique of teaching and class management. The following procedure is adopted in making the assessments: at the end of the second period of school practice each individual case is discussed by the supervisors and a mark suggested. In case of disagreement the points are weighed by a senior member of the staff who knows both the student and the supervisors. In this way a final order is prepared. The students are then sampled freely by inspectors of the Board of Education who test the assessments against their own standards. After this inspection the assessments are again discussed by staff and inspectors, and reports of heads of practising schools are considered in cases of doubt or disagreement. In this way the grade marks finally allotted are the results of the pooled observations of several experienced teachers, and they are not likely to be influenced unduly by any one personal bias or particular standard. The cases most difficult to agree upon are those which seem better than a C but not good enough for the full B grade. These are labelled C+ or B— as the balance of opinion seems to suggest. It is usually possible to decide that a given student is better than a C but not good enough for B; but exactly what intermediate position he should occupy may not be so clear. Hence in most of the results which follow these two grades C+ and B— have been pooled

and treated as one grade intermediate between B and C. Table I shows the number of students and the proportions of men and women in each grade.

TABLE I.
SHOWING THE NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF MEN AND WOMEN STUDENTS INCLUDED IN EACH TEACHING GRADE.

		Grade.							Total
		A	B+	B	B-C+	C	C-	D	
Men .. {	No.	13	34	108	126	95	14	9	399
	%	3	8.5	27	32	24	3.5	2	
Women {	No.	31	28	88	114	90	9	2	362
	%	9	8	24	31.5	25	2.5	0.5	
TOTAL .. {	No.	44	62	196	240	185	23	11	761
	%	6	8	26	31.5	24	3	1	

It will be seen that the women have produced a greater proportion of A's and less proportion of D's. This may be due to differences of standard as between the men and women supervisors. However, the A's and the D's are usually tested carefully by the same inspectors who have an opportunity of comparing men and women students, and an experienced teacher who has supervised both men and women students is of the opinion that the standards in the two sections of the department are comparable. It is a matter of observation that the women show on the whole a greater conscientiousness and absorption in the work, and in addition a greater vivacity, lack of self-consciousness, tact, ready sympathy with children, particularly juniors, and these qualities tend to increase the attractiveness of the teacher's manner and stimulate the response of the class, which results tend to raise the assessment of teaching capacity. If the assessments are pooled we find the following:

		A, B+, B.	Below B.
Men {	No.	155	244
	%	39	61
Women {	No.	147	215
	%	41	59

showing that apart from the A grade there is a close approximation in the assessments.

To obtain a numerical measure for the teaching capacity of any given group the following arbitrary equivalents were adopted.

Grade ..	A	B+	B	B-C+	C	C-	D
Points ..	80	70	60	50	40	30	20

Pre-college teaching experience is taken to the nearest month.

The preliminary analysis revealed a number of students who had commenced as student teachers and had subsequently become uncertificated assistants. This complication made it somewhat awkward to arrive at a single scale of duration of experience for the purposes of constructing contingency and correlation tables. To pool the two types of experience another assumption was made that so far as effective experience and training were concerned one month of uncertificated assistants' experience was roughly equivalent to four months of student teachers' experience. All the pre-college experience was then calculated in units representing one month uncertificated assistants' service. This was found to separate the students into relatively homogeneous groups if the scale of the time shown in Table II is adopted. Groups with average service roughly equal to four, three, two, and one year as uncertificated assistants and one year as student teachers are obtained. The distribution gives two anomalous groups of twelve men and six women with two years of student teachers' experience only. In the tables these would appear in the same group as the one year uncertificated assistants, but as they were found to present certain peculiarities these two groups have been given separately.

TABLE II.

SHOWING THE CONSTITUTION OF THE GROUPS DISTRIBUTED IN TERMS OF MONTHS OF UNCERTIFICATED ASSISTANTS' EXPERIENCE.

NOTE.—One month uncertificated assistants' experience has been taken to be equivalent to four months student teachers' experience.

Months of U.A. experience.	Men.			Women.		
	U.A. only.	Mixed U.A. and S.T.	S.T. only.	U.A. only.	Mixed U.A. and S.T.	S.T. only.
More than 42.5 ..	2	2	—	—	—	—
29.5 to 42.5	3	1	—	1	—	—
18.5 to 29.5	6	2	—	3	1	—
5.5 to 18.5	24	28	12	7	6	6
0.5 to 5.5	2	1	109	—	—	94

Two methods of estimating the teaching capacity of a group have been used :

- (a) By taking the mean points earned by the group according to the scale of equivalents given on page 115.
- (b) By calling the A, B+, and B grades successes and calculating the proportion of successes in the group.

The numbers and the proportions of each grade, both men and women, contained in each range of pre-college experience are summarized in Tables III and IV, and shown graphically in Fig. 1 (p. 118). To test the statistical significance of these tables the chi-square test was applied. Substituting the values for chi-square in Fisher's Tables* gave P much less than .01 (men), and .76 (women).

This means that in a random population the results shown are likely to arise by chance much less than once in a hundred trials in the case of men, and between seventy and eighty times in a hundred trials in the case of women. The coefficient of correlation between teaching grade and teaching experience was found to be :

$$r = .26 \pm .03 \text{ (men).}$$

$$= .05 \pm .04 \text{ (women).}$$

TABLE III.

SHOWING PERCENTAGES OF EACH TEACHING GRADE INCLUDED WITHIN DIFFERENT GROUPS OF PRE-COLLEGE EXPERIENCE.

	Pre-college experience.	No. of students.	Grade								Mean points.	Percentage.
			A	B+	B	B-- C+	C	C--	D			
Men ..	All U.A.'s	68	10	13	44	16	16	—	—	58.5	67	
	12 months											
	U.A.	52	2	15	50	17	15	—	—	57.2	67	
	12 months											
	S.T.	112	2	8	32	33	17	5	3	51.8	42	
	Nil	207	2	7	20	35	30	4	3	49.4	29	
	All men ..	399	3	9	27	32	24	4	2	51.6	39	
Women	All U.A.'s	18	11	—	33	17	33	6	—	52.2	44	
	12 months											
	U.A.	13	15	—	31	8	38	8	—	52.3	46	
	12 months											
	S.T.	94	9	5	26	29	31	—	1	52.8	40	
	Nil	244	9	9	24	33	22	3	1	53.8	42	
	All women	362	9	8	24	31	25	2	1	53.4	41	

* Statistical Methods for Research Workers, p. 96.

TABLE IV.

SHOWING TEACHING ACHIEVEMENT IN MEAN POINTS AND PERCENTAGE OF SUCCESSES OBTAINED, OF STUDENTS WITH DIFFERENT LENGTHS OF EXPERIENCE MEASURED IN MONTHS OF UNCERTIFICATED ASSISTANTS' SERVICE OR ITS EQUIVALENT.

Months of U.A. experience.	Mean points.				Percentage of successes.	
	No.	Men.	No.	Women.	Men.	Women.
42.5 -	4	65	—	—	75	—
29.5 to 42.5	4	67.5	} 5	} 52	75	} 40
18.5 to 29.5	8	60			62.5	
5.5 to 18.5	52	57.2	13	52.3	67	46
0.5 to 5.5	112	51.8	94	52.8	42	40
0.0 to 0.5	207	49.4	244	53.8	29	42
All U.A.'s	68	58.5	18	52.2	68	44
24 months S.T.'s	12	49.2	6	50	17	17
TOTAL	399	51.6	362	53.4	39	41

We have the rather curious result that the pre-college experience seems to produce a significant effect upon the teaching grade of the men, but no effect in the case of the women, taking the groups as a whole. The tables show that the effect is produced most powerfully in the case of the men with uncertificated assistants' experience. The mean points of the men student teachers are just significantly higher than the mean of the inexperienced group. From Table III we have :

12 months uncertificated assistants. Mean points = $57.2 \pm .83$

12 months student teachers. Mean points = $51.8 \pm .75$

Inexperienced. Mean points = $49.4 \pm .55$

giving differences of :

Uncertificated assistants—student teachers = 5.4 ± 1.11

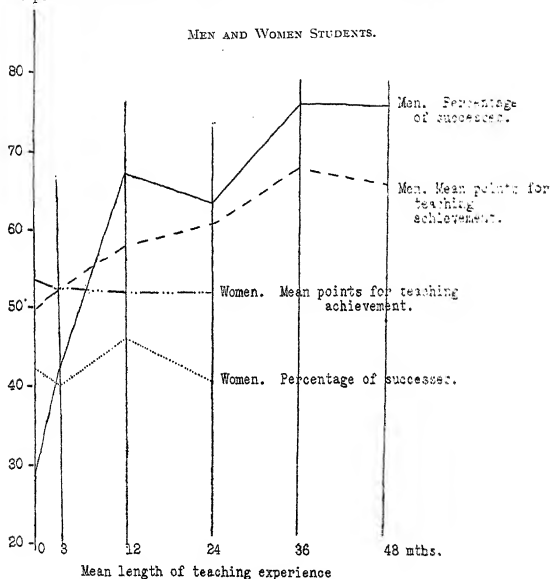
Uncertificated assistants—Inexperienced = $7.8 \pm .98$

Student Teachers—inexperienced = $2.4 \pm .74$

Amongst the men students a period up to twelve months of either uncertificated assistants' or student teachers' experience has produced little or no effect upon the proportion of A's. It causes a shift upwards into the B and B+ grades, *strongly marked in the uncertificated assistants' group*. Increase in the length of student teachers' experience beyond twelve months produced no appreciable effect upon the grade of the small group involved. The marked effect of the uncertificated assistants' experience is suggested by comparing the group of twelve student teachers having two years experience with another group of eight men

FIG. I.

Graphs showing the mean points for teaching achievement and percentage of teaching successes made by groups having a given mean length of teaching experience calculated in months of U.A. service or its equivalent.



who had two years student teachers' experience followed by twelve months uncertificated assistants' experience. The records of the two groups are given in the following table:

	Teaching grade.							Mean points.	Per cent successes.
	A	B+	B	B-C+	C	C-	D		
Two years S.T. ...	—	1	1	6	4	—	—	49.2	17
Two years S.T.+ 12 months U.A. ...	1	1	4	—	2	—	—	58.8	75

The distribution of the C— and D grades suggests that the uncertificated assistants' experience acts as an eliminating agency *while the student teachers' experience does not*. The one year student teachers produced almost as high a proportion of teaching failures as the inexperienced group. It would seem that in a number of cases the supervision of the student teachers, and the standard of work required of them, is not sufficiently severe to discover cases with little or no professional aptitude or promise; for it should be noted that in each case an applicant for admission must produce a report from the head of the school with whom the experience has been gained.*

The case of the women students is curious. It would seem that pre-college experience has no effect upon the teaching grade, whether calculated in mean points or proportion of successes. The result may be due partly to the small number of women uncertificated assistants. It cannot be supposed that the women are incapable of profiting by experience. The inexperienced women return a better average than either the inexperienced men or the men student teacher group. This seems to show that either the women start with a better inherent equipment for teaching, or that they get more benefit from the teaching practice in the professional year, or both. Possibly the women uncertificated assistants and student teachers' groups contain a selection of rather inferior students, or the women acquire too much from their pre-college experience. Direct observation of the men and women students suggests that the women as a whole group tend to be more serious in their application to the work in hand, and to enter into it more wholeheartedly and with more concentration than the men. These characteristics may be a factor in the apparent lack of improvement amongst the women who have had experience. The greater concentration and thoroughness of the women may render them more liable to acquire permanent professional habits of an unsatisfactory nature, making them less teachable later. On the other hand, the unwillingness or inability of the men to become too absorbed may render them less liable to influence by poor as well as good professional conditions.

Generally, we may conclude that whether by selection or direct influence, or both, pre-college experience, *particularly of the uncertificated assistant type, continued for a year or more*, does improve both the

* This bears out the finding of the Departmental Committee. On page 72 of the Report it is stated that "responsible witnesses told us that in large areas, London being one, the number of student teachers ever reported as unsatisfactory was practically negligible. We have also heard no evidence that leads us to suppose that any appreciable number of student teachers give up preparation for the profession at this stage because their experience convinces them of their unfitness."

general level of teaching achievement and the proportion of teaching successes in the case of the men students. The effect is most marked for the B+ and A grades in those men who have had eighteen months or more of uncertificated assistants service. Amongst the women students there is an apparent lack of effect. It seems most reasonable to suppose that the experienced groups of women contain some proportion of less able or less fortunate students, and in that case the pre-college experience may produce a positive improvement by bringing the general level of teaching achievement of these students up to a point at which it is comparable to that of the more favoured group.*

III.—RELATIVE INFLUENCE OF AGE, FACTORS MEASURED BY THE INTELLIGENCE TESTS, ACADEMIC ABILITY, AND THEORETICAL INSTRUCTION IN PROFESSIONAL SUBJECTS.

It may be suggested that the improvement in teaching grade noted in the men students may be due to other factors present, e.g., greater age in the uncertificated assistants' group, differences in intelligence, effects of academic ability, or of instruction in theory and methods of teaching given in lectures or got through books. An attempt has been made to find if these factors have any effect upon the teaching grade comparable to that of teaching experience.

(a) *Effect of age.*

There seems to be no greater relation between teaching achievement and age than would be accounted for by the fact that the students with longer experience are likely to be by that much older on entering college. Table V shows the average ages of the various teaching groups, and the averages of groups arranged according to the actual time spent in school service. It is found that the average age decreases with a decrease in the time spent in teaching, while the average age in the A, B+, B, etc., grades is practically constant. The age range of the inexperienced group is as great as that of the whole sample. A contingency table for relation between age and teaching grade *in students without previous experience* shows $P=.9$ (Fisher's Tables), that there is no more association between these factors than might be expected to arise by pure chance.

* It is stated in the Departmental Report that a serious objection to the student teacher preparation is the great strain that the year's work involves, especially for girls. . . . "many girls seemed stupefied with the exhausting work of the student teacher year . . . the suggestion is probably true that in many cases the less conscientious student teachers drift and get demoralised, while others try to do two things well (i.e., school work and academic studies) and get overworked." See page 73.

TABLE V.

SHOWING (a) AVERAGE AGE OF MEN IN THE A, B+, ETC., GROUPS, AND (b) AVERAGE AGE OF GROUPS OF MEN CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO THE ACTUAL TIME THEY HAVE SPENT IN TEACHING BEFORE ENTERING COLLEGE.

Teaching grade.	Average age.	Actual teaching experience in months.	Average age.
A	25.4 years	18 and above.	25.5 years
B+	23.6 years	6 up to 18	24.3 years
B	23.8 years	3 up to 6	22.9 years
B—C+	23.0 years	Less than 3	23.3 years
C	23.4 years		
C—	22.3 years		
D	25.2 years		

(b) *Effect of the factors measured by the intelligence tests.*

In Tables VI and VII are shown the proportions of each teaching grade in given ranges of intelligence test score with teaching experience constant, and in given ranges of teaching experience with intelligence score constant. It appears that for a given range of experience little or no significant change in teaching grade accompanies change in intelligence score, while for a given range of intelligence score marked differences in teaching grade accompany differences in the type and length of pre-college experience. It will be seen that *the student teachers' experience is very much inferior in effect to the uncertificated assistants' experience, and little better than no experience at all.*

TABLE VI.

SHOWING RELATION BETWEEN SCORES ON INTELLIGENCE TESTS, AND TEACHING ACHIEVEMENT, IN GROUPS WITH THE SAME RANGE OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE.

MEN STUDENTS.

Teaching experience.	Score in intelligence tests.	No. in group.	Per cent of A's.	Per cent of successes.	Mean points.
More than 12 months U.A. {	115+ 85 to 114 84—	16 14 5	31 7 —	62 64 80	61.3 58.5 58.0
6 to 12 months U.A. {	115+ 85 to 114 84—	8 20 2	13 — —	75 65 100	61.3 55.5 60
6 months and more S.T. {	115+ 85 to 114 84—	21 68 23	5 1 —	29 42 30	49 51.5 50.5
Less than 6 months {	115+ 85 to 114 84—	45 109 42	2 1 5	29 30 29	49 49.8 48.8

TABLE VII.

SHOWING RELATION BETWEEN TEACHING ACHIEVEMENT AND TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN GROUPS OF MEN WITH THE SAME RANGE OF SCORES ON INTELLIGENCE TESTS.

Score on intelligence tests.	Teaching experience in months	Per cent of A's.	Per cent of successes.	Mean points.
115+	Plus 12 U.A.	31	62	61.3
	6—12 U.A.	13	75	61.3
	6 and more S.T.	5	29	49.0
	Less than 6	2	29	49.0
114 to 85	Plus 12 U.A.	7	64	58.5
	6—12 U.A.	—	65	55.5
	6 and more S.T.	1	42	51.5
	Less than 6	1	30	49.8
84—	Plus 12 U.A.	—	80	58.0
	6—12 U.A.	—	100	60.0
	6 and more S.T.	—	30	50.5
	Less than 6	5	29	48.8

(c) *Effect of academic ability.*

Tables VIII and IX show that with teaching experience relatively constant, teaching achievement shows no tendency to vary with academic record, while with academic record constant the teaching achievement varies with the type of experience.

TABLE VIII.

SHOWING RELATION BETWEEN ACADEMIC RECORD AND TEACHING ACHIEVEMENT IN GROUPS OF MEN WITH THE SAME RANGE OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE.

Teaching experience.	Academic record.	No. in group.	Per cent of A's.	Per cent of successes.	Mean points.
More than 12 months U.A.	I to IIb hon.	12	25	58	60.0
	III hon. and pass.	16	6	63	55.6
	Fail	8	25	75	63.7
6 to 12 months U.A.	I to IIb hon.	14	—	72	59.3
	III hon. and pass	13	8	69	57.7
	Fail	6	17	84	60.0
6 and more months, S.T.	I to IIb hon.	41	—	39	53.0
	III hon. and pass	51	2	45	52.6
	Fail	25	—	20	43.4
Less than 6 months.	I to IIb hon.	115	1	29	49.8
	III hon. and pass	77	3	33	48.8
	Fail	21	5	29	49.0

TABLE IX.

SHOWING RELATION BETWEEN TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND TEACHING ACHIEVEMENT IN GROUPS OF MEN WITH THE SAME RANGE OF ACADEMIC RECORD.

<i>Academic record.</i>	<i>Teaching experience in months.</i>	<i>No. in group.</i>	<i>Per cent of A's.</i>	<i>Per cent of successes.</i>	<i>Mean points.</i>
I to IIb hons. ...	Plus 12 U.A.	12	25	58	60.0
	6 to 12 U.A.	14	—	72	59.3
	6 and more S.T. ...	41	—	39	53.0
	Less than 6	115	1	29	49.8
III hons. and pass	Plus 12 U.A.	16	6	63	55.6
	6 to 12 U.A.	13	8	69	57.7
	6 and more S.T. ...	51	2	45	52.6
	Less than 6	77	3	33	48.8
Fail	Plus 12 U.A.	8	25	75	63.7
	6 to 12 U.A.	6	17	84	60.0
	6 and more S.T. ...	25	—	20	43.4
	Less than 6	21	5	29	49.0

(d) *Effect of theoretical instruction as measured by the scores on the professional papers at the end of the professional year.*

Tables X and XI show that, as before with theory scores constant, experience has a marked effect upon the proportion of good teachers in a given group, but at the same time if experience is constant, the groups with the highest scores in theory tend to produce the highest proportion of good teachers. It may be that the good teachers produce good theory scores because the experience helps in the understanding of the theory, or the theoretical instruction tends to raise the teaching grade. The latter is not so likely, as observation shows that many of the students treat the theoretical studies as an academic exercise in book learning pure and simple; and, in addition, while the teaching grade is assessed at the end of the second term, the bulk of the work which is represented on the sessional papers in theory of education is done in the third term, particularly in the case of the men students to whom these tables refer. Evidence will be shown in more detail later which suggests that the two factors, teaching grade, and what is measured by the theory scores are correlated on account of their relation to a third group of factors.

TABLE X.

SHOWING TEACHING ACHIEVEMENT AND SCORES IN PROFESSIONAL THEORY PAPERS IN GROUPS OF MEN WITH THE SAME RANGE OF PRE-COLLEGE TEACHING EXPERIENCE.

<i>Teaching experience in months</i>	<i>Standardised scores on theory papers.</i>	<i>No. in group.</i>	<i>Per cent of A's.</i>	<i>Per cent of successes.</i>	<i>Mean points.</i>
Plus 12 U.A. .. {	115+ 114 to 85 84 -	8 21 4	63 5 —	87·5 52 50	71·2 55·7 50·0
6 to 12 U.A. .. {	115+ 114 to 85 84 -	2 17 3	50 — —	100 76 66	70·0 57·7 53·3
6 and more S.T. {	115+ 114 to 85 84 -	14 61 19	7 2 —	64 40 42	60·7 52·5 49·0
Less than 6 .. {	115+ 114 to 85 84 -	29 109 39	— 3 —	24 40 13	51·4 52·6 43·3

TABLE XI.

SHOWING RELATION BETWEEN TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND TEACHING ACHIEVEMENT IN GROUPS OF MEN WITH THE SAME RANGE OF MARKS ON THE PROFESSIONAL THEORY PAPERS.

<i>Standardised scores on theory papers.</i>	<i>Teaching experience in months.</i>	<i>No. in group.</i>	<i>Per cent of A's.</i>	<i>Per cent of successes.</i>	<i>Mean points.</i>
115+	Plus 12 U.A. 6 to 12 U.A. 6 and more S.T. ... Less than 6	8 2 14 29	63 50 7 —	87·5 100 64 24	71·2 70·0 60·7 51·4
114 to 85	Plus 12 U.A. 6 to 12 U.A. 6 and more S.T. ... Less than 6	21 17 61 109	5 — 2 3	53 76 40 40	55·7 57·7 52·5 52·6
84 -	Plus 12 U.A. 6 to 12 U.A. 6 and more S.T. ... Less than 6	4 3 19 39	— — — —	50 66 42 13	50·0 53·3 49·7 43·3

For the students as a whole the co-efficients of correlation relating to b, c, and d, above are :

	<i>Men.</i>	<i>Women.</i>
Between teaching grade and intelligence scores. . . .	$r = .03 \pm .04$	$r = .17 \pm .04$
Between teaching grade and academic record	$r = .09 \pm .03$	$r = .40 \pm .03$
Between teaching grade and average theory scores.	$r = .33 \pm .03$	$r = .37 \pm .03$

IV.—SUMMARY OF RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS. PART I.

(1) Pre-college teaching experience appears to be significantly connected with teaching grade achieved in the professional year, in the case of the men but not the women students.

(2) This connection is most strongly marked in men students who have had more than twelve months experience as uncertificated teachers. The type of experience is of more importance than the amount of it. Student teacher experience seems, on the whole, to be little better than no experience at all.

(3) Among the women students, the experienced groups, whether uncertificated or student teachers, do not show any significantly better results than the inexperienced groups. This is probably due to the fact that other influences mask the effects of experience ; women students may gain more value from the teaching practice in the professional year than from pre-college experience, and it is possible that they are more liable, through greater concentration in the work, to acquire bad as well as good technique from the experience before entering college.

(4) Within the limits of age here represented there is no connection between teaching achievement and age.

(5) In the men students there is no significant connection between academic record or the abilities measured by the intelligence tests and the teaching grade. The positive effects of pre-college experience noted cannot, therefore, be ascribed to these factors.

(6) With teaching experience constant there is a significant connection between success in the theory papers taken at the end of the professional year and teaching grade. The nature of this connection, and the extent to which pre-college experience contributes to the assimilation of theoretical instruction, will be discussed in Part II of this report.

RÉSUMÉ.

L'EXPÉRIENCE PROFESSIONNELLE AVANT L'ENTRÉE À L'ÉCOLE NORMALE, ET D'AUTRES FACTEURS CONTRIBUANT AU SUCCÈS PROFESSIONNEL DES ÉTUDIANTS D'UNIVERSITÉ.

Il existe une différence d'opinion quant à la valeur de l'expérience gagnée par les jeunes gens et les jeunes filles avant l'entrée à l'école Normale. On prétend d'un côté qu'elle augmente leur aptitude pour l'enseignement, qu'elle les aide à assimiler l'instruction théorique professionnelle, et qu'elle élimine les incapables. De l'autre côté on nie tous ces avantages. Cette enquête est une tentative d'obtenir de l'évidence concrète sur ce problème en analysant la carrière de 761 étudiants d'université.

Dans ce groupe d'étudiants on trouve que le service total et responsable pendant une année, ou plus, a vraiment une influence positive sur la note obtenue dans l'épreuve pratique, dans le cas des hommes, mais non pas dans celui des femmes. L'expérience gagnée comme " élève-professeur " n'a pas de valeur, on n'en a que très peu. Chez les hommes, où l'on a remarqué cette influence, l'âge, la carrière académique, et les aptitudes, mesurées par un " test " d'intelligence, ne montrent aucun rapport significatif avec la note obtenue.

On a trouvé, cependant, un rapport significatif chez tous les étudiants, hommes et femmes, entre la note obtenue dans l'épreuve pratique, et le succès dans l'examen de théorie professionnelle.

ÜBERSICHT.

LEHRERFAHRUNG VOR ZUTRITT ZU EINER LEHRERBILDUNGSANSTALT UND ANDERE FAKTOREN BEIM ERFOLGREICHEN UNTERRICHTGEBEN VON UNIVERSITÄTSSTUDENTEN.

Es besteht ein Meinungsunterschied über den Wert der von jungen Menschen vor Zulassung zu einem Institut für Pädagogik gewonnenen Lehrerfahrung. Diese soll ihre Lehrfähigkeit erhöhen, dazu beitragen, theoretischen Berufsunterricht in Einklang mit der Praxis bringen, und die Unfähigen beiseitesetzen. Andererseits werden diese Vorteile in Abrede gestellt. Hier wird ein Versuch gemacht, konkrete Beweise über dieses Problem durch Analyse der Leistungen von 761 Universitätsstudenten zu ermitteln.

Es stellt sich bei dieser Gruppe von Studenten heraus, dass verantwortliche Dauerlehrtätigkeit auf ein Jahr oder länger auf den von männlichen aber nicht von weiblichen Studenten erhaltenen Rang positiv wirkt. Die Erfahrung des Lehramtsaspiranten bleibt fast ohne Wirkung. Im Falle der Männer, wo die Wirkung in Betracht gezogen wird, zeigen Alter, akademische Leistungen, und die von einer Intelligenzprüfung gemessenen Fähigkeiten keinen bedeutenden Zusammenhang mit der Stufe der Lehrfähigkeit. Ein bedeutender Zusammenhang zeigt sich bei sowohl männlichen als weiblichen Studenten zwischen der Stufe der Lehrfähigkeit und Erfolg in den berufstheoretischen Prüfungen.

(Part II will appear in the next number.)

A BORSTAL EXPERIMENT IN VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.*

BY ALEC RODGER

(*from the National Institute of Industrial Psychology*).

- I.—*The general aim of the Borstal system.*
- II.—*The particular aim of this experiment.*
- III.—*The tests employed.*
- IV.—*The assessment of "temperamental qualities."*
- V.—*The interview procedure.*
- VI.—*The making of recommendations.*
- VII.—*Problem cases.*
- VIII.—*Tentative conclusions.*

I.—THE GENERAL AIM OF THE BORSTAL SYSTEM.

It is truly shocking to contemplate the fact that less than a hundred years ago—in 1833, to be exact—an English boy of only nine years of age was sentenced to death on an ordinary charge of housebreaking. By that time, however, our great-grandfathers were beginning to recognize the error of their penal ways, and the last century has seen a gradual but quite marked change in the attitude of society (as represented by its laws) towards the young offender.

The change has resulted very largely from the development of a better understanding of the causes of crime. The time-honoured notion that a criminal act is due entirely to an entity called "an evil will" has given way to a succession of more up-to-date views on the matter, each one more scientific than the last. We now realize that crimes may be regarded as symptoms of internal conflicts, and that, consequently, our efforts to treat crime should consist primarily of efforts to resolve those conflicts and to give a new direction to the forces which are involved in them. Our aim should be to reform, to re-shape, the offender in a positive fashion, and not simply to seek revenge or to deter him from further wrong-doing by methods which are essentially negative in their effect.

This reformatory view is not yet by any means generally accepted, but it is steadily gaining ground. One of its first important advances in England was made nearly thirty years ago, when an experimental

* A paper read before the Education Section of the British Psychological Society on October 3rd, 1932.

institution was opened in the village of Borstal, near Rochester. Workshops were set up in a converted convict prison, and a definite attempt was made to teach a selected band of young delinquents something which would be of real use to them when, eventually, they regained their freedom.

The experiment was acclaimed to be a success, and with the passing of the Borstal Act of 1908 the Borstal system proper came into being. It sought to reform by inculcating what were called "habits of industry, self-respect and self-control." The boys—who were to be detained, normally, for three years, and who were to be between the ages of sixteen and twenty-one at the date of conviction—were to have their games as well as their work; and they were to have a carefully-planned scheme of rewards and privileges.

At the present time there are six Borstal Institutions for boys—one at Borstal itself, one at Feltham in Middlesex, one at Portland, one on the Isle of Wight, and two in Nottinghamshire. Each is divided up into houses, after the manner of a public school, and each house has its house-master and his assistant. Attached to the institutions, too, are medical officers, matrons, chaplains, discipline officers, and instructors. The officials are usually fairly numerous. At Portland, for example, there is a staff of over a hundred for a total of about four hundred and fifty boys.

The whole system is a very flexible one, and it has changed in many respects since its initiation, but the working-parties have always been among its essential and most prominent features. Instruction is given in joinery, in smithing, in plumbing, in bricklaying, in cooking, in gardening, and in a number of other occupations. There are also, inevitably, a few unskilled labouring parties. It is not pretended, of course, that the vocational training provided is in any sense of the word complete. That would be an aim obviously impossible of achievement in the short time available. But it can be claimed that it is frequently an adequate preparation for advanced work.

We have no accurate knowledge of the methods employed in the early days of the institutions in the allocation of boys to their working-parties; but in the more immediate past, although nominally the task has been performed by the housemasters, it has usually been left to the boys themselves to choose. They have been allowed to select an occupation in which they have professed an "interest." But there has lain a danger.

Other things being equal, a person who is interested in an occupation is likely to be more satisfied with it, and satisfactory in it, than a person who has not that interest. But interest is not the only factor which determines occupational satisfaction and satisfactoriness. Ability must

also play its part. And neither necessarily involves the other. It is true that they frequently "go together"; but they do not always do so. A boy may fail ignominiously at a mechanical trade because in spite of his intense interest in things mechanical he has little aptitude for dealing with them; or he may fail because in spite of his aptitude for dealing with them he shows no consistent interest in them. Interest must be accompanied by ability if success is to be predicted with any degree of confidence. Interest alone does not provide us with a sufficient basis for optimism. We must be on our guard against any inclination to choose a course of action simply because we are interested in it. There may be some substantial justification for our tendency to pursue it; but, on the other hand, there may not.

Many of those Borstal boys who have selected their own working-parties have done extremely well in them; more have done less well; others have done badly. Some of the failures have been due mainly to the fact that interest in an occupation has not been accompanied by any aptitude for it; some have been due mainly to the fact that the interest has been of an impermanent kind, grounded, maybe, upon a misunderstanding, or lack of understanding, concerning the nature of the work involved. All of the failures, no matter what their causes have been, have produced dismay—not only in the housemasters, who realize that they tend to sow the seeds of discontent, but also in Home Office officials, who, not without reason, dislike the waste of time and materials which such failures imply.

II.—THE PARTICULAR AIM OF THIS EXPERIMENT.

A few years ago the Prison Commissioners approached the National Institute of Industrial Psychology, through the Industrial Fatigue (now Health) Research Board, with regard to the possibility of applying to the problem the methods which the Institute had already shown to be of value in the giving of vocational guidance to boys and girls of school-leaving age. A short preliminary experiment produced excellent results. As the 1930 Report of the Prison Commissioners remarked, "none of the lads who were selected for work parties on the results of the tests applied for transfer to another party." It was decided, therefore, that a larger experiment should be undertaken.

It was arranged that during the course of one year—roughly, the whole of 1930—four hundred boys should be examined by the Institute. They were to be seen at the Wormwood Scrubs Boys' Prison, the collecting-centre for all the Borstal Institutions, before starting their training. And

in order that the comparative merits of the old and new methods might be assessed with a fair degree of accuracy it was agreed that half of the four hundred should form a "control" group. That meant that although the whole four hundred were to have the complete examination, vocational recommendations were only to be forwarded to the institutions for every alternate boy. For the rest no recommendations were to be sent, nor were any test results to be disclosed: they were to be allocated to their parties according to the system which had been employed in the past.

For the sake of uniformity of method the work of vocational guidance was carried out by one examiner, but the task of organizing the experiment was entirely in the hands of the Principal of the National Institute and of the Head of its Vocational Guidance Department.

The procedure adopted was a modification of that used at the National Institute itself in the examination of ordinary public and secondary school boys. Before the actual testing of each boy was begun the examiner made a brief study of his history. The police records, together with the comments of prison governors, medical officers, chaplains, lady visitors, probation officers and others, usually provided him with an adequate working knowledge of the boy, and notes were made (on a specially-prepared form) on what appeared to be important points.

During these preliminaries a number of boys were weeded out as being unsuitable for inclusion in the experiment. Most of these were youths of a very low degree of intelligence. They do not ordinarily present any serious vocational problem as far as Borstal is concerned, because they are for the most part unfit for skilled work of any kind and have no alternative but to do labouring in one form or another. It was possible to omit these boys altogether by making use of the scores they obtained in the intelligence test (Dr. Ballard's Columbian Test) which is given to all would-be Borstalians soon after their arrival at the Boys' Prison, and also by referring to the results of the Binet-Simon tests which are given by the prison medical officers to those who are suspected of feeble-mindedness. The other boys who were deliberately omitted were those who, by reason of some physical defect, were recommended by a medical officer as being unfit for any but sedentary work. It is a recognized practice at the institutions that offenders of this type should be put into either the tailoring party or the boot-shop.

The room used throughout the year was virtually a double cell. In many respects it was not an ideal one for the purpose—during the greater part of most days, for example, a choice had to be made between working without adequate ventilation and working to the accompaniment of disturbing noises from the yard outside the two small windows—but the prison authorities did everything they could to give assistance.

III.—THE TESTS EMPLOYED.

Several of the tests were given in group form to half a dozen boys at a time ; others were given individually. The whole examination, however, was always preceded by a short and very simple group explanation of its why and wherefore.

The first test was a paper-and-pencil one (the N.I.I.P. Form Relations Test) devised to measure an individual's ability to judge shapes and sizes—an ability which is obviously of great importance in most skilled manual occupations. This was followed by one (the N.I.I.P. Memory for Designs Test) which calls not only for the ability to judge shapes and sizes but also for the ability to reproduce them. The third was a paper-and-pencil test of intelligence (a revised version of the N.I.I.P. Group Test 34) of the type with which most educationists are familiar. These three were all given in group form and occupied the first hour of the examination.

After a brief rest a revised form of the Stenquist Assembly Test for mechanical ability was gone through. It consists in the putting together of the parts of ten fairly common mechanical objects—a bicycle bell, a lock, a piece of chain, and so on. The time-limit is thirty minutes, and the objects may be assembled in any order and, wherever necessary, with the help of a screwdriver. It need hardly be added that in this test, as in all the others, the method of scoring is rigidly standardized.

Following upon this—though usually several hours later—came one of Dr. J. W. Cox's N.I.I.P. group tests for manual dexterity ; that is, for speed and accuracy in the performance of certain finger and wrist movements. Each boy had in front of him ten pieces each of the four parts of an electric lampholder. These had first to be assembled and then to be taken to pieces as speedily as possible. The number of seconds required for each operation was carefully noted and attention was paid to the methods employed. The two processes—assembling and stripping—were repeated five times, so that when he had finished the test each boy had put together and taken to pieces fifty lampholders. The final score was based upon the two best scores for assembling and the two best for stripping. The element of competition was always prominent in this test and was obviously largely responsible for the fact that it was more popular than any of the others. Some youths became remarkably hilarious and excited about it.

Individual performance tests were given to every boy. The tests used were those known as Healy "A," Cube Construction, and the Dearborn Formboard. Unlike the paper-and-pencil tests, they all present practical planning problems. Until recently tests of this kind were commonly referred to as "performance tests of intelligence," but

it is apparent that the name is a somewhat misleading one. Intelligence is undoubtedly an important factor in the successful execution of them, but it would seem that a number of special abilities have their part to play as well. We would be wise, perhaps, just to regard them rather vaguely as tests of "practical ability."

The Healy "A" Test consists in the fitting together of five small rectangular pieces of wood into a larger rectangular frame. The score is based upon the number of seconds occupied in solving the problem. The Cube Construction Test is in three parts. In each the subject is provided with bricks, partly painted and partly unpainted, and is asked to build them up after the pattern supplied by a model which is shown to him.* The final score is based both upon the time taken and upon the number of moves required to complete each part of the test. The Dearborn Formboard test is also in three parts, and the scoring follows the same general plan.

All of these tests were used throughout the whole experiment. Two others—one of Dr. J. W. Cox's paper-and-pencil tests for mechanical ability, and Dr. W. J. Pinard's Perseveration Test—were used for a short period and then discontinued; the former because it proved to be too difficult for most of the boys, and the latter because it was found that there was not sufficient time available for the giving and scoring of it. Sometimes a more advanced intelligence test (the N.I.I.P. Group Test 33) was employed, but this was never done unless the boy concerned had first scored a very high mark in the ordinary intelligence test. Occasionally, too, a test (the N.I.I.P. Group Test 25) for routine clerical operations—such as classifying, filing, checking, copying, and simple arithmetical computation—was used to supplement the others.

IV.—THE ASSESSMENT OF TEMPERAMENTAL QUALITIES.

Test results, however, do not in themselves form an adequate basis for the giving of vocational guidance. They are of great value,

* An interesting apparent perseveration factor frequently influences the score obtained in this test. (Perseveration has been described as the tendency which every idea has, after having once occurred, to remount into consciousness spontaneously.) The first two models to be imitated are each blocks composed of nine small cubes set three by three. The third is a *cube* composed of eight small cubes set two by two by two. The small cubes are, throughout the test, identical in size. What is apparently a perseveration factor shows itself in the subject's tendency to build up the third model in three by three formation, as he has done in the two previous models, instead of in twos, as he ought. Of 100 Borstal boys examined consecutively, 51 manifested this inclination. Nine of them had placed all of the eight cubes on the table before discovering the mistake, and two of the nine actually said, "Please, sir, there's one missing." This happened in spite of the fact that in every case the model to be imitated was standing on the table in front of the subject and was never more than six inches away from the model being constructed.

undoubtedly, but the experienced psychologist is acutely conscious of their limitations. For a boy has many characteristics which may be of fundamental importance in his work but which cannot yet be measured by means of tests. A quick temper, for example, may be a tremendous handicap to him even though he possesses outstanding intellectual ability. Again, the capacity for mixing easily with people of very different qualities may play a considerable part in determining success. Pushfulness is still another of the many factors which may make or mar a man vocationally.

It would be rash and unscientific to say dogmatically that we shall never have valid and reliable tests for such characteristics as these ; but in spite of the efforts which have been made by hundreds of psychologists we certainly cannot claim to have them yet. But the absence of numerically-scored tests for these "temperamental qualities"—as they are sometimes called—does not absolve us from the task of doing our best to assess them by some other means. The ordinary N.I.I.P. procedure is to decide beforehand which of these qualities are usually of primary vocational significance, and then to study carefully the subject's history and his demeanour during the whole of the examination—and particularly during the more practical tests—with a view to discovering if, and to what extent, he does or does not possess the characteristics in question. The results of the study are recorded in five-point rating-scale form : that is, his possession of each of the qualities is rated as being very high, high, average, low, or very low.

Among the qualities assessed in this way were sociability, cheerfulness, assertiveness, energy, and perseverance. The difficulties presented by the procedure are frequently comic and need to be experienced to be appreciated to the full. To define satisfactorily the terms employed would be in itself the work of almost a lifetime. But in spite of these difficulties it is a method which makes for uniformity and which deserves to be widely used. It is obvious, of course, that the ratings will in many instances require to be annotated. For example, if a boy is rated "very high" for assertiveness it is desirable that a note should be added stating whether that assertiveness appears to be of a natural and straightforward kind or whether it appears to be (as it often is) a compensation for some deeply-rooted feeling of inferiority.

V.—THE INTERVIEW PROCEDURE.

A great deal of assistance in the making of these ratings was afforded by the carefully organized interview which each boy had after he had completed the tests. In it he gave his *own* version of his life-history.

He was encouraged to talk about his home, his parents, his friends, his school, his leisure activities, and his work. Particular attention was paid to his work. He was asked what jobs he had had in the past, how he had got them, why he had got them, what exactly he had had to do, how long he had kept them, what his wages had been, how he had got on with his employers and fellow-employees, and—last but not least—why he had left.

Downright lies were far less frequent than interesting exaggerations. One youth, who said he was "a trained bricklayer and a member of the bricklayers' union," later admitted that the only connection he had ever had with the trade had been as a tea-boy: moreover, he had been sacked from that position for incompetence at the end of his first fortnight. Another, who had stated that he was a farmer, confessed, "I've never actually been *on* a farm, but for a bit I had a milk round twice a day in a fair-sized town." A third, a particularly unimpressive specimen both socially and intellectually, claimed to have been on the stage. His statement was literally true, but it was made in such a manner as to obscure the fact that his only theatrical appearance had been as a wave under the carpet in a provincial production of "Robinson Crusoe"!

Stories of this kind were received by the examiner without any apparent disapproval. To some extent, in fact, they were encouraged, because they sometimes provided useful indications of important factors in the make-up of those who told them. But the encouragement was not overdone. When the exaggerations showed signs of exceeding unduly the (usually) more accurate history contained in the official records the topic of conversation was gently, but quite firmly, changed.

Part of the interview consisted in the discussion of the Borstal working-parties. Note was taken of each boy's apparent attraction to, or aversion from, the various occupations mentioned. It was obviously necessary, however, that these expressed likes and dislikes should be regarded with caution, for frequently they were based upon inadequate knowledge. More than one boy who said he was interested in fitting was found to be without the ghost of a notion as to what a fitter did beyond the fact that he was "a sort of mechanic." Opportunity was given, too, for the mention of any proposals a boy might have concerning the work he might be able to take up on his release.

The attitude of the youths towards the experiment could hardly have been more satisfactory. The vast majority of them gave their co-operation far more willingly than had been expected. A very few began their examinations in a spirit of civil disobedience, but without exception they gave in—without pressure—after the second or third test. Only one

boy out of the four hundred gave any indication of active defiance. During the first test he put his pencil down and said, "I don't see the good of all this." He was sent out of the room immediately, but later in the same day he asked if he might be allowed to carry on. For most of them the examination was a welcome respite from the daily routine of the Boys' Prison.

VI.—THE MAKING OF RECOMMENDATIONS.

The tests and interview at an end, the examiner had to face the problem of making vocational recommendations. In some instances he did not find it a difficult one. Diagram 1 shows the "psychographic profiles" of two youths who, because of their lack of intelligence, their lack of ability to judge shapes and sizes, their lack of mechanical ability, and their lack of manual dexterity, were unfit for skilled work of any kind. They were, however, sociable and cheerful individuals, each with a high average degree of perseverance. They had both been labourers before they had been convicted, and back to labouring they had to go. They went contentedly, for neither had hitched his waggon to any remoter star.

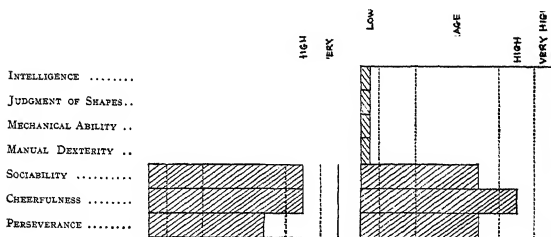


DIAGRAM 1.—TWO LABOURERS.

Three points should be noted in connection with the diagrams. In the first place, the seven characteristics mentioned are not the only ones of which cognizance was taken; but they are, perhaps, among those of most general importance. Secondly, numerically-scored tests were only given for the first four of the seven. Assessments of the remaining three are shaded differently in order to emphasize the fact that they are based upon the examiner's own judgment and not upon any definite test scores.

Thirdly, it must be remembered that the profiles are not intended to represent the *ideal* make-up of labourers and fitters: they represent the *actual* make-up of two boys who became labourers and of two boys who became fitters.

Diagram 2 shows the profiles of two would-be fitters. A Borstal fitting party should be composed of youths who are capable of performing satisfactorily mechanical work of a skilled kind. The work is done in an atmosphere which is akin to that of a Sheffield factory, and most of it consists in the turning out of products—such as door-hinges—for Government contracts. Mechanical ability is obviously a factor which makes for success in it, and so is manual dexterity. A fitter must have, too, the ability to judge quickly and accurately the shapes and sizes of the materials with which he is dealing, and he must be at least averagely intelligent. Both of these boys conform roughly to the requirements. It

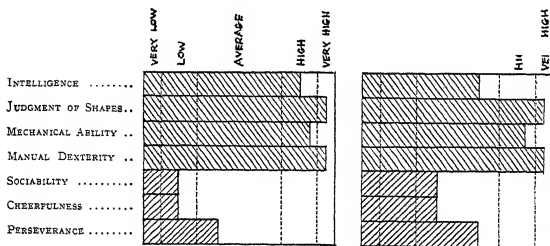


DIAGRAM 2.—TWO FITTERS.

will be noticed that neither of them was judged to be very sociable. Probably, however, this tendency to unsociability is to be accounted a gain rather than a loss. The noise and lay-out of a fitter's shop are not conducive to easy "mixing," and an unsociable boy is likely to find his enforced solitariness less irksome than one who is all the time anxious to gossip with his neighbour.

Similar principles were employed in deciding on fitness for other occupations—for joinery, bricklaying, plumbing, cooking, gardening and the rest. An attempt was made to see that boys whose fingers were "all thumbs" should not be made into plumbers, that boys of really good all-round abilities should not be left to run to seed in labouring parties, and that dirty boys should not be made into cooks.

VII.—PROBLEM CASES.

In many cases, however, the examiner experienced considerable difficulty in making his final decisions. The hindrances were of diverse kinds. In a few instances—but only in a few—the trouble arose from the fact that the individual was not really in a fit state for psychological testing. Many of these boys, it must be realized, had recently left home for the first time in their lives, and some of them had to go through their examination before they had succeeded, to any appreciable extent, in making an adequate adaptation to their new surroundings. In one or two cases the maladjustment was more deeply-rooted. One youth, whose homosexual tendencies had led him into trouble, was obviously so acutely miserable that his test results could only be regarded as being almost valueless.

A number of the examiner's difficulties arose from the fact that the interests and abilities of some of the boys were such that no ideal solution of their vocational problems could be found in any of the Borstal working-parties. The system caters primarily for youths who are most suitable for work of a manual kind: those whose capacities are in the main intellectual or social—as, for instance, clerks and salesmen—have to be content with a second-best. The reason for this lies, of course, in the fact that most Borstal boys come from families in which the general circumstances and occupational tradition are such that their members "take up" manual work without giving a thought to a job of any other kind.

A, for example, who was sixteen and a half at the time of his examination, came from an industrial town. His mother died when he was four: his father deserted him a few months later. He passed eventually into the care of a somewhat dissolute uncle who lived in a particularly dirty attic. He was not allowed to avail himself of a junior county scholarship which he won at the age of eleven: he was warned that when he was fourteen he would have to get out into the world and earn his own living. This he did: or, rather, this he began to do; for after three weeks spent as a warehouseman's assistant he was thrown out of work through trade depression. During the long period of unemployment which followed he worked hard writing essays and making financial calculations. He had an almost incredible knowledge of Stock Exchange news and of politics. By 1930, long before Sir John Simon and Mr. Walter Runciman had declared in favour of tariffs, he had become a Liberal Protectionist, and he had prepared schemes for dealing with unemployment, with India, with disarmament, and with most of the other problems which harass modern politicians.

He recognized the fact that his interests were very different from those of the people amongst whom he moved, and that his abilities were greater than theirs, and he began to cultivate an attitude of aloofness and superiority. He despised those whose capacities compared very unfavourably with his own. Finally he decided to break away, and in an attempt to escape from his uncle he stole. He was caught and put on probation. But again he stole. And again he was caught. On this occasion a Borstal training was recommended for him. Before he arrived at the institution to which he was sent he wrote an essay for the governor of the prison in which he was temporarily lodged. It was called, "A Boy's First Impressions of Prison Life." In it he pointed out how many of the little hard edges which the boys knocked up against on their first day in prison could quite well be rubbed off without impairing the discipline of the place in any way.

His practical abilities are good, but his main asset is undoubtedly his general intellectual ability. He scored exceptionally high marks in several intelligence tests. In the most difficult one of all (the N.I.I.P. Group Test 33) his result was well up to the standard usually attained by second-class honours graduates. Socially he is very unimpressive. He is short and rather frail-looking, and both his hair and his nose appear to be uncontrollable. He is excitable and somewhat contemptuous in his manner. Some of his characteristics are, in fact, of a kind which would not be of much positive use to him in any occupation, but he is definitely more suitable for work of an advanced clerical nature than he is for any of the Borstal working-parties. For the present, however, he will have to be content to be a small round peg in a rather large elliptical hole. He has become a carpenter. His instructor reports that although he is easy to handle and puts his best into the work his enthusiasm for it is not marked.

B, another "problem" case, was twenty years of age. He wanted to become a fitter at Borstal in order that he might later realize his ambition to join the Air Force as a mechanic. Unfortunately, although his intelligence is above the average, he has little mechanical ability and even less manual dexterity. His score in the test for manual dexterity was, in fact, one of the lowest recorded. His principal assets are, without a doubt, his social qualities. His personal appearance is greatly in his favour; he is tall and fresh-complexioned, his hair is dark and curly, his eyelashes are long and drooping, and he has a gold tooth in exactly the right place. His fondness for mixing with people is exceeded only by the success with which he does it. Sensitiveness and responsiveness are among his most outstanding characteristics.

When he left his elementary school he entered—more by accident than by design—an occupation in which those qualities could be exploited to the full: he became a salesman. He worked on a commission basis in his father's "soft goods" business, and even at the early age of sixteen and a half he sometimes earned as much as fifteen pounds in one week. He had in him, however, a streak of adventurousness which called for expression. He contrived to give it an outlet by becoming a continental buyer for the firm, for since leaving school he had attended evening classes and had managed to pick up a working knowledge of both French and German. But after a time felt that something still more novel was essential for his well-being; so he joined the Foreign Legion. There he remained for nearly a year. His removal from that regiment—which was effected at his own earnest (almost desperate) wish—involved his parents in considerable expense, but he did not appear to be particularly grateful for their assistance. Shortly after his return to England he was convicted of housebreaking and sent to Borstal.

His desire to become a fitter was, as has already been remarked, an unfortunate one. The test results showed clearly that he was quite unsuitable for any skilled work of a mechanical kind. On the other hand, he was obviously well-equipped for work which called primarily for the possession of good social qualities. But there is no occupation of that type at Borstal. It was apparent that he would have to be content with a second-best until the time of his release. On his travels he had acquired an unusually interesting and fairly extensive knowledge of continental cooking, and his conversation showed that he was well acquainted with some of the better Soho restaurants. For this reason, amongst others, it was suggested that he should become a cook. He laughed scornfully at the proposal and declared that although he liked eating things he disliked intensely the thought of having to cook them. He added that he would run away from his institution if he were not allowed to join the fitter's party. However, he became a cook, and the writers of his reports agreed that he was an interested and industrious worker who "gave of his best."

The two youths, A and B, are typical of those whose inadequate adaptation to the industrial conditions of the Borstal Institutions results largely from the fact that at present there is little scope for the vocational development of boys whose abilities are mainly intellectual or social rather than practical. Both of them did manage to make successful adjustments, but their adjustments would probably have been even more successful if it had been possible to provide them with work which made greater demands upon their principal capacities.

VIII.—TENTATIVE CONCLUSIONS.

A final assessment of the value of the National Institute's experiment cannot be made until the last boy examined has completed his training and has been discharged from his institution ; but the six-monthly reports which have already been received from housemasters indicate that that value cannot be questioned. Further modifications in the procedure will probably have to be made if the method is to be continued, but its essential worth—both from the point of view of the Borstal boy himself and from the point of view of the Home Office—is undeniable.

Not the least of the benefits which would result from the whole-hearted acceptance of the help which the vocational psychologist can give would be the increased general contentment of the boys. A person who is vocationally maladjusted tends not only to be vocationally discontented but also to be generally discontented ; and, conversely, a person who is vocationally adjusted tends not only to be vocationally contented but also to be generally contented. And the greater the Borstal boy's general contentment the more open he is likely to be to the non-vocational influences which the system attempts to foster.

It is obvious, of course, that the giving of vocational guidance should be, ideally, team-work. The vocational psychologist cannot perform his task adequately without the co-operation of others. It is particularly important that he should have the assistance of the medical psychologist. Both are psychologists, but each is a specialist, and neither can solve single-handed all of the many difficult psychological problems which most delinquents present. The medical psychologist's equipment is usually incomplete in that he has neither the vocational psychologist's knowledge of occupational requirements nor his experience of test administration : the vocational psychologist's equipment is usually incomplete in that he has neither the medical psychologist's knowledge of the many physical disorders which have important psychological aspects nor his experience of the subtler forms of psychological disturbance.

Granted this co-operation, it is clear that in the future the vocational psychologist in the penal institution will have a considerable part to play in the treatment of crime. It is equally clear that the vocational psychologist in the school will have a considerable part to play in its prevention.

RÉSUMÉ.UNE EXPÉRIENCE À BORSTAL DANS L'ORIENTATION
PROFESSIONNELLE.

Le but général des Instituts "Borstals" en Angleterre c'est d'offrir aux délinquants adolescents une éducation réformatrice. On donne de l'enseignement dans différentes occupations manuelles, spécialistes ou non-spécialistes. Jusqu'ici on a permis aux garçons de choisir leur groupe de travail, mais on a trouvé que ceci a souvent eu pour résultat de mal placer les enfants. L'Institut National de Psychologie Industrielle vient d'appliquer au problème ses propres méthodes, et on a fait passer des tests d'intelligence, de dextérité manuelle, de capacité mécanique et d'autres à 400 jeunes détenus. On a consacré une attention toute spéciale à la tâche importante d'estimer les qualités de tempérament. Quelques uns des cas les plus difficiles qu'on a rencontrés, étaient ceux où les aptitudes d'un garçon se trouvaient être en premier lieu intellectuelles ou sociales, plutôt que pratiques, puisque tout l'enseignement offert par les instituts est de nature pratique. Les résultats définitifs ne sont pas encore disponibles mais des rapports déjà reçus il est évident que l'orientation professionnelle psychologique pourra avoir à l'avenir un rôle important à jouer quand il s'agit d'empêcher, ou de traiter, le crime.

ÜBERSICHT.

EIN "BORSTALVERSUCH" ZUR BERUFSWAHL.

Die Borstalinstitute Englands sollen hauptsächlich jugendlichen Missetätern eine sie bessernde Erziehung geben. Unterricht wird in einer Anzahl von gelernten und ungelernten Handwerken gegeben. Bisher durften die Knaben in der Regel ihre eignen Arbeitsgruppen wählen, aber man hat die Erfahrung gemacht, dass dadurch häufige Fehlgriffe entstanden. Das Nationale Institut für Industrielle Psychologie hat kürzlich seine eignen Methoden auf das Problem angewendet, und 400 Jugendliche sind auf Intelligenz, Fingerfertigkeit und mechanische und sonstige Fähigkeiten geprüft worden. Man hat besondere Aufmerksamkeit der wichtigen Arbeit gewidmet, durch das Temperament bedingte Eigenschaften abzuschätzen. Einige der schwierigsten von den gefundenen Fällen waren die, in denen man erfuhr, dass die Fähigkeiten der Knaben in erster Linie intellektuell oder sozial und nicht praktisch gerichtet waren, denn die ganze in solche Instituten erteilte Erziehung ist praktischer Art. Die Endergebnisse des Versuches sind noch nicht zugänglich aber nach schon erhaltenen Berichten ist es augenscheinlich, dass wohl künftighin der Berufspsychologe eine ziemliche Rolle sowohl in der Behandlung als in der Verhütung von Verbrechen spielen wird.

INTELLIGENCE TESTS FOR MENTAL AGES OF FOUR TO EIGHT YEARS.

BY RAYMOND B. CATTELL AND HILDA BRISTOL.

- I.—*The need for evaluation of old and invention of new tests.*
- II.—*An account of the tests selected for study.*
- III.—*The five new tests.*
- IV.—*Conditions of the experiment.*
- V.—*The saturation of tests with "g."*
- VI.—*Suitability as determined by length, difficulty, sex differences, and children's preferences.*
- VII.—*Indications for the construction of intelligence tests.*
- VIII.—*Comments and summary.*

I.—THE NEED FOR EVALUATION OF OLD AND INVENTION OF NEW TESTS.

To produce tests of intelligence for young children it is necessary not only to discover tests which are good measures of "g" but also tests which have an immediate and intrinsic appeal to the child mind. Clearly, a true measure of mental capacity is only being made when the strongest possible drive is at work in solving the problems set. With older children and adults the strongly established self-regarding sentiment and the disciplined sentiments connected with school life provide sufficient motivation in normal circumstances to ensure full use of whatever intelligence is possessed. But with children of four and five one must fall back upon unorganized instinctive drives and depend very little—ideally not at all—upon school atmosphere and the mere desire to please an adult, if truly valid results are to be obtained. The test must resemble a game and borrow the glamour of games or else it must simply be presented as a means to some immediate instinctive satisfaction, as Köhler's test situations appeared to his chimpanzees.

Most of the tests which have been used in assessing the intelligence of young children certainly satisfy pretty well the requirement of inherent attractiveness, for many of the items are taken over, with little or no modification, from nursery activities. It is as tests of intelligence that they are open to criticism. Many of the items in Kindergarten and pre-school tests are flagrantly tests of acquired habit and knowledge.*

* Objective evidence already exists of the excessive part played by knowledge. Cyril Burt has himself pointed out, from the examination of partial co-efficients, "there can therefore be little doubt that with the Binet-Simon scale a child's mental age is a measure not only of the amount of intelligence with which he is congenitally endowed . . . it is also an index, large if not mainly, of the mass of scholastic information and skill . . . which he has accumulated in school."—*Mental and Scholastic Tests*, p. 182.

e.g., tying a bow, naming colours, naming objects in a picture, fastening buttons, building a tower of bricks. Others, as far as observation and introspective analysis can tell us, are almost certainly measures of initiative, foresight, and such qualities as spontaneity or quickness of movement, which are probably related to temperament differences.* Form boards put a premium on the last-named quality; tests requiring invented instead of selected answers test temperamental spontaneity (Garnett's "c" factor); mazes as commonly scored penalize the impulsive child who lacks foresight, whilst picture description demands initiative and lack of nervousness.† Finally, in most of the individual tests over this age range, but especially in the Binet-Simon, there is far too much scope for the personal and subjective impressions of the examiner. The alarming extent of the error due to this lack of objectivity can only be realized by those who have compared the scores made by the same child with a sympathetic and unsympathetic examiner respectively. And even with the same examiner there may be a tendency for the bright-looking, well-groomed, unrepressed child to be given a higher I.Q. than his equally intelligent but less attractive and more diffident class-mate, in consequence of the accumulation of items on which his semi-correct, bright, verbose answers have been given the benefit of the doubt. All three of these objections—dilution of the measurements with learnt responses, with temperament and character qualities, and with the personal reactions of the examiner—apply equally, of course, to the higher levels of the Binet Scale. Yet, wherever contact with the main stream of psychological research is superficial, these tests have been retained, in spite of more than a quarter of a century of progress involving fundamental advances.

No experimental work appears to have been undertaken to discover the validity of the various types of test item in a test consisting of numerous components such as the Binet-Simon.‡ This could only be done

* Recent work indicates that quickness and originality are closely linked in a broad temperament factor. See "Temperament Tests," R. B. Cattell, *Brit. J. Psych.*, Jan., 1933.

† No research appears to have been done directly on the affective relationships of examiner and examinee which are likely to introduce so large an error into individual testing. Goodenough, "The Kuhlmann-Binet Tests for Children of Pre-School Age. A Critical Study and Evaluation," *Inst. Child Welf. Mons.*, 1928, No. 2, compared the change in intelligence measurement on a first and second examination with the change in rating on a number of temperament traits of the examinee. A correlation of .36 for shyness and .36 for negativeness was found, indicating that these play no small part in blanketing the real manifestations of intelligence.

‡ Wallin, "A statistical study of the individual tests in age VIII and IX in the Stanford-Binet scale," *Ment. Meas. Monro.*, 1929, No. 6 has begun such an enquiry. He found that Counting Backwards and Vocabulary at the eight-year level failed to discriminate normal, sub-normal, and feeble-minded groups, while in the nine-year tests the life experience of the older and duller compensated for lack of brightness.

satisfactorily by constructing a whole series of items on the model of each type of item being studied and inter-correlating the scores on each type series.

Such a procedure carried out for all the types of test now in use in various scales for children of four to eight years would be an enormous undertaking. So thorough a sifting we did not attempt, for many types of test in use can be neglected forthwith on an analysis of the mental processes involved in them, whilst the very best of them may prove to be poorer than others yet to be invented. Indeed the salvaging of such tests promises to be a less profitable task than the construction and assessment of new tests under the guidance of our knowledge of "g" as the ability to perceive and employ complex relations. The plan of our present research was therefore to take a chance sampling of tests commonly used with children of this age; to add to them half a dozen new tests constructed in accordance with the principles just developed, and to examine all of them with regard to correlation with "g," attractiveness to children, suitability as regards degree of difficulty and other criteria.

II.—AN ACCOUNT OF THE TESTS SELECTED FOR STUDY.

The following varieties of tests were taken as samples from current intelligence tests scales. In each instance the number of pass or fail items was expanded to ten by the addition of similar test items of a degree of difficulty (found by preliminary experiment) such that the average child of six would achieve a score of about five out of ten. Where ten items were already present in these samples from current tests the degree of difficulty was assumed to be correct, since the scales consulted were those intended for children of this age.

A short description of the essential nature of each test, together with a note on well-known intelligence scales in which it occurs, is given below. The actual example used in the present assessment is also given, with details of scoring where necessary. Of course, only scales that are in use in the four to eight year range are listed below.

(1) *Form Board Test.*

The principle of the form board test—choosing from among several shapes the shape (in two or three dimensions) which fits a given space—underlies the greater part of the heterogeneous medley known as Performance Tests. It demands the perception of spatial relations, the use of immediate memory and a fair amount of manual dexterity (when scored on timing).

Occurrence.—Pintner Paterson Performance Scale (Seguin Five Figure, Two Figure, Casuist, Triangle, Diagonal, Healy A, etc.). Miss Newell* lists thirty-four form boards on which more or less extensive research has been done. Intelligence is also measured by this principle in the Worcester Form Board Series, Dearborn Form Boards, Ferguson Form Boards, Witmer Cylinders, Wallin Peg Boards (Merrill-Palmer Scale) and in a modified form in the Kingsbury Primary Intelligence Tests. A complete Intelligence Test for young children on this principle has been brought out by Atkins.†

Present Assessment.—Made on a Séguin board as used in the Merrill-Palmer Tests. Standard presentation. Score as mean time of two trials. Other methods of scoring will be compared for extent of correlation in a later paper; this method approximated best to current methods.

(2) *Decroly Matching Game.*

Here the child has to match shapes with shapes of a more complex but meaningful form than occur in most form boards. Rather greater demand is made on attention and immediate memory, but the element of manual dexterity is practically eliminated.

Occurrence.—Merrill-Palmer Tests.

Present Assessment.—As in Merrill-Palmer on time and errors of one performance. No errors were in fact made by the six-year-olds, so the scoring was on time alone.

(3) *Picture Completion.*

This test occurs in two forms. In one the child is asked to describe what is missing, in the other he is asked to pick out from a number of alternatives the part required to complete the picture. The latter seems preferable as it puts no premium on reproductive capacity or the ability to describe. If the test is truly analogous to sentence completion one would expect it to be an excellent test of "g."

Occurrence.—Binet (age six), Healy P.C.1 and P.C.2, Rhode Island Intelligence Test, Pintner non-language Test, Detroit Advanced First Grade, Pintner-Cunningham Primary, Otis Primary, Kuhlmann-Anderson, and Slight non-verbal.

Present Assessment.—On ten completion pictures each with four alternatives supplied. Pictures designed to direct attention on choice between alternatives rather than on searching the picture for what is missing. One demonstration item. Instruction to point with finger.

(4) *Substitution or Code Test.*

Throughout a page of printed symbols the child is asked to substitute sign for sign according to a key given at the head of the paper. Immediate

* "The uses of the Form Board in the Mental Measurement of Children," *Psych. Bull.* 28, 1931, p. 309.

† "The Measurement of Intelligence of Young Children in an Object Fitting Test." University of Minnesota monograph.

memory is in demand and speed of writing, but there seems to be no reason for expecting this to be a good test of intelligence, unless it can be shown that rapid memorizing of the key results in better performance than rapid mechanical use of the key.

Occurrence.—Very widely used for slightly older children but in this age range only Pintner-Paterson Scale, Otis Primary, and Sleight non-verbal Test.

Present Assessment.—Otis Primary. Score number of items substituted correctly in one minute, divided by four to give a possible score of ten.

(5) *Maze Test.*

Here the child looks on a printed plan of a maze and runs a pencil down the pathways to mark the shortest way out. Ability to appreciate spatial relationships, together with a character-temperament quality resulting in deliberateness and foresight, seem important for success in this test.

Occurrence.—Porteus Maze Tests and Otis Primary Intelligence Test.

Present Assessment.—Otis Primary Tests, given in standard time, and scored on number of maze boxes correctly completed, i.e., ignoring rectified errors but not jumping of walls. This gives a possible score of ten.

(6) *Immediate Memory or Similarities.*

In tests of this type a visual or auditory presentation is made and the child is asked either to reproduce it or recognize it from among a number of similars presented immediately afterwards.

Occurrence.—Binet, ages four and seven (and others outside this range). Here it occurs both in visual form (reproducing shapes) and auditory (repeating digits). Detroit First Grade, Rhode Island, Detroit Advanced First Grade, Pintner-Cunningham Primary and Kuhlmann-Anderson.

Present Assessment.—Visual recognition form, Detroit First Grade, in which the child sees the form on one part of the paper and picks out an identical form from another part. Five items were added to bring the possible score up to ten.

(7) *Social Groupings.*

This is a kind of General Knowledge Test working in a restricted field. The child is asked to say what the people depicted in his sketch are, e.g., fireman, sailor, clergyman, butcher, (from their dress). One would scarcely expect success in this test to have much relation to intelligence among children of varied education and home environment.

Occurrence.—Involved in Binet Picture Description, age seven, Rhode Island Intelligence Test.

Present Assessment.—On two items in Rhode Island Test to which eight similar items had been added to bring the score up to ten.

(8) *Wrong Pictures.*

The ability required in this test, in which the child points out what is wrong in pictures of familiar objects, is obviously very closely related to that in Picture Completion. In so far as the child has to describe what is wrong—a performance depending on vocabulary and temperamental readiness to risk a foolish answer—this test is perhaps less satisfactory than the latter.

Occurrence.—Detroit First Grade, Kuhlmann-Anderson, Sleight non-verbal, and others.

Present Assessment.—On three items from the Detroit First Grade Tests to which seven new items had been added.

(9) *Memory or General Knowledge.*

Here success is almost wholly dependent on general knowledge and memory for the names of things. The child is either asked to name objects or to pick out objects after the names have been given.

Occurrence.—Binet, ages three, six, seven, and eight (naming coins) describing pictures, etc. Detroit First Grade, Pintner-Cunningham, Detroit Advanced First Grade, Kingsbury Primary, and Kuhlmann-Anderson.

Present Assessment.—On use of Detroit First Grade, with five added items to produce score of ten.

(10) *Æsthetic Judgment.*

The child is asked to say which of two or more faces, houses, animals, etc., is the more attractive and pretty. Since the vagaries of individual experience and temperamental make-up do strongly affect taste, one would scarcely expect this to be a reliable test.

Occurrence.—Binet, aged five, Pintner-Cunningham, Kuhlmann-Anderson, Grade I.

Present Assessment.—On Binet faces, plus Pintner-Cunningham animals, houses, etc., plus a clock item to bring the possible score to ten.

(11) *Following Directions.*

The child may either execute commands with a pencil on a printed sheet or carry out commissions about the room. The latter seems preferable from the point of view of interesting and pleasing the child. In either cases in addition to the task of intelligently understanding the instructions, the child has to keep the various points in mind during the interval between listening and being allowed to start, so that memory is also involved.

Occurrence.—Binet, age five, Detroit First Grade, Kingsbury Primary, and in a less straightforward fashion in many other tests.

Present Assessment.—Two Binet items, plus eight new ones of which the following are typical. (6) Walk to one end of the table. Put one hand on your head and the other on the table. Then lift one foot from the ground. (8) Take the square piece of paper from the table. Put it on the chair by the door. Then put the smaller of the two books that are on the table on top of it. Each instruction was repeated twice.

(12) *Colour naming.*

The child is asked to name a number of colours presented on strips of paper. The test appears to be one of general knowledge once more. Doubtless it discriminates well between children of various ages, for Baldwin and Stecher* have pointed out that ability to sort colours shows a marked and regular increase between the ages of two and six. But that is no proof whatsoever that it is a test of intelligence. There also appears to be a sex difference in favour of girls.† These facts alone suggest that it will turn out to be a poor test, but the existence of the sensory defect of colour blindness should be a final cause for its rejection.

Occurrence.—Binet Scale, age five. In a modified form—colour sorting—in the Merrill-Palmer Scale.

Present Assessment.—The four Binet colours, plus six more difficult secondary colours, including grey.

(13) *Manikin Test.*

The child is supplied with body, arms, legs, and head of a wooden man and asked to put the parts together as quickly as possible. Tests of this kind, in which a familiar object or picture is to be put together, involve the perception of fairly complex spatial and causal relationships, but it is possible that purely reproductive activities and the excessive opportunities for exploratory trial and error frequently required, e.g., in tests approaching the jig-saw type, prevent such tests from being good measures of "g."

Occurrence.—Binet Scale, age five (fitting parts together), A mare and foal, feature profile, ship test, and other tests, e.g., Merrill-Palmer picture puzzles I, II, and III, involving the Manikin principle in still more modified form. The Goodenough drawing of a man probably deals with a similar ability but with executive drawing ability added.

Present Assessment.—Standard scoring of Manikin as in Merrill-Palmer Scale, with, in addition, one point for completing Manikin in less than fifty-five seconds, two points for less than forty-five seconds, three for less than thirty-five, four for less than twenty-five, and five for less than ten seconds.

* "The Psychology of the Pre-School Child."

† "On the Colour Vocabulary of Children." *Nebraska University Studies*, 1890, I, p. 205., by H. K. Wolfe.

III.—THE FIVE NEW TESTS.

The five new tests, survivors of more than a dozen new types tried out in a preliminary way, were constructed under the guidance of three principles: (1) to involve the perception and use of relations; (2) to make only the smallest demands on knowledge or acquired skill; (3) to interest the child through activity, play element, or pictorial presentation.

(1) *Line's Test.*

A type of test requiring neither verbal knowledge nor general knowledge of objects has already been used by Line* with older children and shown to be highly saturated with "g." Diagrams of two kinds on cards are sorted into two heaps according to their essential types, individual and "accidental" variations being discounted. The ability to educe relations and correlates is required in a high degree here in the feat of abstracting the essential type. This test is really a modification of the well-proven classifications test which is too artificial to interest young children. Line's Test was modified to suit very young children by putting animals, toys, etc., in place of geometric forms without, however, causing the judgment to be made on remembered rather than perceived qualities—an important point. Everything necessary for the classification was given in the pictures. It was started with extremely simple examples including a demonstration set consisting of noughts and crosses of various sizes and thicknesses. The sorting of the cards and the ritual of saying "this kind" and "that kind" provided the play element which pleased the children. In the older form of classification test this principle has been used in the Kuhlmann-Anderson, Sleight Non-Verbal scale, and others.

(2) *Riddles Test.*

The ordinary riddle, beloved of children when they are a few years older, promises, when modified, to be an excellent test of the appreciation of relations, especially when the inter-play of conditions laid down is more important than mere reproductive ability. To eliminate the factor of fertility of reproduction, the child must be asked to select from given alternative answers. Differences in general knowledge can be eliminated to a large extent by making even the more difficult items from material well within the experience of four and five-year-olds. The Merrill-Palmer Action-Agent Test—"what tuns?", etc.—is somewhat similar, but by imposing

* See *Brit. Journ. Psychol.* monograph supplement No. 15, 1930, "The growth of visual perception in children," by W. Line.

only one condition and failing to supply alternatives for choice it becomes more a test of reproductive than eductive facility. Examples—What things are green and grow on trees? Grass, lamp-posts, leaves? What is round and flat? An apple, a penny, a book, or a leaf? What is it that you can hear and feel but cannot see? Rain, wind, snow, lightning? Each riddle was read twice with the alternatives presented first in order to prevent guessing.

(3) *Series Tests.*

In the ordinary Series Test the relation of two adjacent items has to be educed, compared with the relation of subsequent adjacent items and applied to the end term to educe as a correlate the next term of the series. For this reason it bids fair to be a good test of "g," but in practice the test can only be made sufficiently difficult for older children and adults by resorting to mathematical forms, and this almost certainly brings with it the exercise of a restricted, special mathematical aptitude.

With young children this difficulty does not arise. Pictures on cards of objects which formed a series or sequence were shown (four cards placed in order) and the child was asked to choose from four remaining cards the one which should come next (i.e., be placed fifth on the series). The items included—a candle burning shorter and shorter; one, two, three, four, and five sparrows on a twig; boy and girl alternately, joining hands in a row; two propellers revolving in opposite directions in subsequent positions.

There are two drawbacks to this test, (1) the difficulty of conveying the notion of a series to the duller four and five-year-olds, which prevents their scoring even one or two out of ten. (2) The relative lack of interest, which interest indeed is only maintained by the pictorial presentation and the activity of handling cards. A test similar in principle occurs in Sleight's Non-Verbal Test.

(4) *Inference Stories.*

Inference tests have proved good measures of intelligence with older children. The present attempt to adapt them to very young children consisted in making a story out of each problem. Although this aroused interest it made the test far too long, and eventually a compromise was made in which with considerable curtailment of the account, an attempt was still made to preserve the story atmosphere. Secondly, a child was not required to be logical in a pedantic, mathematical fashion, confining himself only to given premises, but was expected to

reason in his natural manner, employing common sense. In the first example below, for instance, he naturally assumes that the bigger boy is the stronger, the usual state of affairs among young children. (2) My brother Tom is much bigger than I am, but Willie is smaller. I want to take my wooden horse into the garden. but it is too heavy for me to carry alone. Shall I ask Tom or Willie to help me? (4) Yesterday I found a robin's nest at the bottom of the garden with four eggs in it. This morning I met Billy Green carrying two of the eggs away so I made him take them back at once, but he dropped one and smashed it on the way back. How many eggs will there be in the nest now? (10) Mother has gone to the Post Office or the butcher's or the grocer's. The Post Office is at the corner, further than the butcher's but not so far as the grocer's. She told nurse she would not be going as far as the Post Office, where do you think she has gone?

(5) *Puzzle Boxes.*

As we have already pointed out, the ideal kind of test for children under five or six would seem to be one in which the solution is part and parcel of the attainment of some instinctive goal. We started on the plan of putting sweets in a puzzle box, so constructed that familiarity with mechanical devices would not alone permit of its being opened. The situations were of such a kind as Köhler presented to apes, requiring appreciations of spatial relationships and readiness to perceive the uses to which objects could be adapted. They were also designed, as far as possible, to require the satisfaction of two or three conditions simultaneously in opening the box, in order to avoid solutions by lucky random manipulation. The sides of the boxes were of wire openwork, so that everything could be seen and every movable part was pointed out to the child before the box was handed to him. It was soon evident that the interest aroused by these boxes was so great that small dolls and other attractive but inedible objects could be substituted for sweets without impairing the children's zeal to solve the problems. In the actual tests, beads, dolls, and wooden objects were used.

IV.—CONDITIONS OF THE EXPERIMENT.

Conclusions in the field of intelligence testing are frequently rendered of little value owing to the failure to eliminate sources of spurious correlation, notably that arising from a wide scatter of ages. The population chosen for the present research was highly selected for age, consisting of

100 boys and girls of six years of age (six being the middle year of the age range for which the tests were being designed). None was less than five and a half or more than six and a half, with the exception of six children who missed the limits by one or two months. It seemed inadvisable to take a group of one sex only, for spurious correlation could only arise from a mixture of sexes if a distinct sex difference should exist in the abilities measured. Since the sex difference in regard to "g" has repeatedly been shown to be negligible, any test showing a marked sex difference would on that ground alone be excluded from the final test battery. With regard to choosing a wide or restricted variation of education the issues are by no means simple. Whilst a perfectly uniform group would give no false correlation values, the tests would only have been proved to be good tests of "g" for children possessing that particular education. For example, many current tests requiring a rather high degree of general knowledge and training may appear from correlations to be good tests of "g" among well educated children but would really be grossly unfair to and ineffective with poorly educated children, or in a group of children of very mixed types. A desirable test of intelligence in all testing situations is one as valid for uneducated as for well educated subjects.

From this it would appear that the experimental group should be one containing children of all shades of school and home background. Now this condition may be satisfied without producing spurious correlation providing that the group does not consist of children well and poorly educated with respect to one pattern of education only. In the latter state of affairs correlations would arise which are only correlations between various branches of the impressed education, not between native abilities sharing "g." The 100 children in the present research were compounded in about equal numbers from the following sources: a London City elementary school, two private schools, three rural elementary schools, a suburban elementary school, and a modern progressive school.

The detailed conditions of testing were as follows. Three examiners collected data, since it is desirable to know the value of the tests for the average examiner, not merely for a particular examiner who might have some idiosyncrasy of presentation. It is almost as necessary to eliminate this personal equation as it is to render the results independent of educational peculiarities in the subjects.

The tests were given in the following order, which was planned to facilitate "warming-up" and to bring the more interesting material at the end of each half session where boredom might otherwise arise. Each

child, whenever possible (in the majority of instances), completed the tests on one day in two sittings of about three-quarters of an hour each, with an interval of about fifteen minutes between. In no instance was the testing split into more than three sessions or spread over more than two days.

Order of Presentation of Tests :

Séguin Form Board, Decroly Matching Game, Picture Completion, Series Test, Inference Stories, Line's Test, Riddles, Puzzle Boxes, Substitution Test, Maze Test, Social Groupings, Wrong Pictures, Similarities Test, Memory (General Knowledge), Following Directions, Æsthetic Judgment, Naming Colours, Manikin.

The instructions, the essentials of which are given in the above descriptions of tests, were in every case stereotyped as to wording. No indication was given when errors were made, but children were liberally congratulated and encouraged whenever no clue to the solutions was given thereby. Children were allowed to finish puzzle boxes without interruption, for their own satisfaction, although they might have exceeded the time limit.

V.—THE SATURATION OF TESTS WITH "G."

With the exception of the first two tests, all tests were scored on a possible ten points. Correlations of all tests with one another, worked out on the Bravais-Pearson formula, are shewn in Table I. The signs of the correlations from the two "time" tests have been reversed, since a high numerical value means a poor score. The tests have been arranged in the order of magnitude of their mean correlation with all other tests. This mean has been calculated from co-efficients taken to three places of decimals, not from co-efficients corrected to two places as in the table. Reliability co-efficients are not shewn since they have been worked out often enough for these tests and since a co-efficient worked out on odd and even items has very little meaning. Moreover a good test of "g" must, *ipso facto*, be a reliable test, whereas a reliable test may yet not be a good test of anything in particular.

It may later be possible to give similar tests on two distinct occasions to the same individual and so get a true reliability co-efficient.

TABLE I.
INTER-CORRELATIONS OF EIGHTEEN TYPES OF TEST.

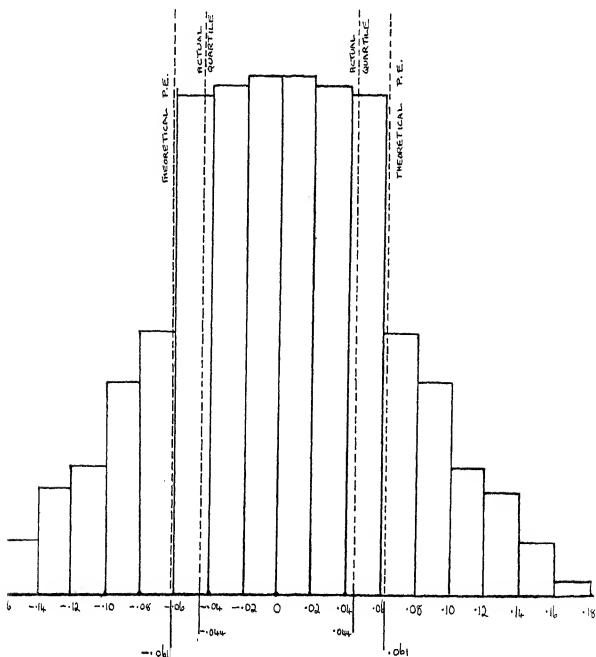
<i>Tests.</i>	A.	B.	C.	D.	E.	F.	G.	H.	I.	J.	K.	L.	M.	N.	O.	P.	Q.	R.	Mean Correlation with other Tests.
Memory (Gen. Know.) ..																			.420
Mazes ..	.52		.56	.49	.48	.54	.38	.53	.43	.42	.43	.39	.27	.46	.51	.27	.34	.11	.420
Riddles ..		.56	.46	.57	.37	.41	.35	.48	.40	.47	.40	.33	.51	.33	.39	.35	.37	.34	.414
Line's ..	.49	.57	.49	.49	.59	.46	.36	.60	.31	.40	.49	.48	.40	.35	.40	.26	.23	.20	.413
Following Directions ..	.48	.37	.59	.41	.41	.50	.40	.50	.47	.32	.44	.31	.50	.35	.37	.32	.25	.33	.411
Substitution ..	.54	.41	.46	.50	.49	.49	.42	.40	.30	.46	.45	.41	.45	.38	.38	.25	.32	.28	.401
Similarities ..	.38	.35	.36	.40	.42	.41		.37	.41	.51	.41	.31	.45	.33	.34	.27	.26	.28	.367
Inference Stories ..	.53	.48	.60	.50	.40	.31	.37		.32	.20	.36	.37	.40	.27	.31	.25	.29	.24	.364
Wrong Pictures ..	.43	.40	.31	.47	.30	.38	.41	.32		.32	.43	.36	.35	.32	.26	.40	.21	.32	.351
Æsthetic Judgment ..	.42	.47	.40	.32	.46	.36	.51	.20	.32		.33	.41	.20	.34	.47	.29	.14	.21	.344
Manikin ..	.43	.40	.49	.44	.45	.39	.41	.36	.43	.33		.22	.31	.33	.24	.18	.21	.24	.343
Decroly Matching Game ..	.39	.33	.48	.31	.41	.39	.31	.37	.36	.41	.22	.24	.24	.46	.22	.44	.29	.15	.339
Series ..	.27	.51	.40	.50	.45	.38	.45	.40	.35	.20	.31	.24		.23	.09	.20	.30	.32	.329
Séguin Form Board ..	.46	.33	.35	.35	.38	.38	.33	.27	.32	.34	.33	.46	.23	.32	.32	.32	.29	.12	.326
Naming Colours ..	.51	.39	.40	.37	.38	.33	.34	.31	.26	.47	.24	.22	.09	.32		.30	.30	.22	.317
Social Groupings ..	.27	.35	.26	.32	.25	.17	.27	.25	.40	.29	.18	.44	.20	.32	.30		.27	.21	.279
Puzzles Boxes ..	.34	.37	.23	.25	.32	.29	.26	.29	.21	.14	.21	.29	.30	.29	.30	.27		.25	.270
Picture Completion ..	.11	.34	.20	.33	.28	.16	.28	.24	.32	.21	.24	.15	.32	.12	.22	.21	.25		.232

(The intercorrelations of the ten best tests—the tests selected for further study—are cut off by heavy lines from the remaining coefficients.)

The order of goodness (or validity) of these tests is very different from that anticipated, notably with respect to the low position of picture completion and the high position of general knowledge. Of course it is just possible that the order given by this procedure of taking the mean correlation co-efficient is not the order of correlation with "g" owing to the existence of fairly extensive group factors which would raise the mean correlations of those tests sharing "s's" in addition to "g." But we

DIAGRAM I.

DISTRIBUTION OF TETRAD DIFFERENCES FROM THE TEN BEST TESTS.



have as yet no reason to suppose that such factors exist here, and for final use we shall first disprove the existence of such overlapping group factors among the tests selected.

Our purpose is to provide a battery of tests satisfying the criteria of high saturation with "g," attractiveness to children and maximum diagnostic value with restricted duration. A total duration for the test battery of about three-quarters of an hour seems a reasonable compromise with reliability, convenience, and the child's tendency to fatigue. A battery of seven or eight tests would occupy about this time. One might reasonably expect that this number might survive from the initial group of ten taken from the above table (Table I), after the rejection of tests containing overlapping special factors or which proved unpopular or too lengthy or inconvenient. Only the first ten tests were examined, therefore, according to the tetrad difference criterion (630 tetrads). The very extensive task of working out tetrads for all eighteen tests (9,180 tetrads) may be undertaken as a matter of theoretical interest at a later date, but we confine ourselves at present to the practical purpose of selecting a battery of tests.

The 630 tetrad differences distributed themselves as on page 155.

The actual quartile is at .044. The theoretical p.e., worked out in accordance with the formula* of Spearman which has been proved reliable by many previous researches, is .061. Not only is the distribution approximately normal but the p.e. is well within the theoretical p.e. It is therefore safe to conclude that these ten tests are free from any marked group factor over and above "g."

Nevertheless, in order to remove any suspicion of a remaining group factor, and also as a matter of theoretical interest, a search was made for the connections associated with the largest tetrads. The first proved to be *Riddles-Inference Stories* followed closely by *Similarities-Æsthetic Judgment*. It is reasonable to assume that the specificity common to the first two lies in the entirely oral and verbal presentation. It might well reside in short distance auditory memory (for *Riddles* and *Following Directions* also have a distinctly large tetrad difference average). The specificity of the second pair is comparatively obscure. Both require a rapid comparison and contrast of visual forms, but the same can be said of many other tests. In these other tests (e.g. Line's, Substitution), however, the perception of exact, detailed shape is less important. It seems probable that we are dealing here with specific visual and auditory memory functions such as have been indicated by researches on a general factor in memory.

* P.e. = $\frac{1.349}{N^{\frac{1}{2}}} [r^2 (1-r)^2 + (1-R) S^2]^{\frac{1}{2}}$ See "Abilities of Man," Appendix XI.

VI.—SUITABILITY AS DETERMINED BY LENGTH, DIFFICULTY, SEX DIFFERENCES AND CHILDREN'S PREFERENCES.

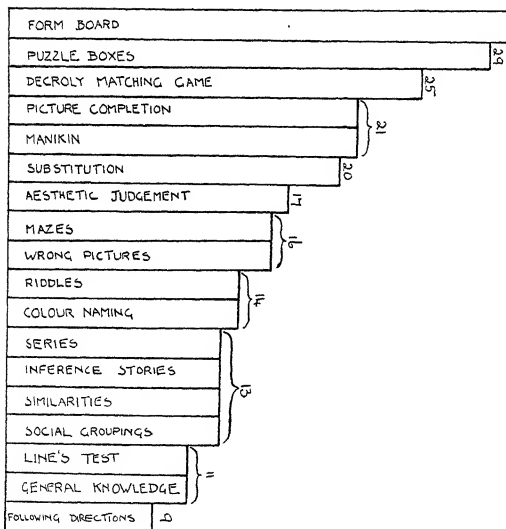
Before applying the above knowledge to the construction of a test battery we have to take into consideration other findings.

It is generally recognized that the most reliable method of establishing an order of preference with regard to a series of items is to make paired

DIAGRAM II.

CHILDREN'S PREFERENCES.

CHOICES IN 306 PAIRED COMPARISONS.



(Figures at the right indicate the number of times the test has been chosen by children in preference to another test. The columns are proportional in height to the numbers.)

comparisons of each item singly with every other item and then rank the items in order of preferences gained. To cover our eighteen tests 153 paired comparisons were necessary. Actually the ground was covered twice, 306 paired comparisons being made. Since it was quite impossible to get each child to make 306 comparisons—or even 30—while the tests were still fresh in his mind, the 306 comparisons were divided up as equally as possible (three to each child) among the 100 children. The judgments were made immediately after the testing and the child was asked not merely “which do you like?” but “which would you rather do again, this or this?” (pointing to the exposed test material). The tests ranked as given on page 157.

On the whole the tests in which the child is active and uses some concrete piece of apparatus seem most preferred. Yet such a test actually stands at the tail end of the preferences. This test—Following Directions—can, more than any other test, be made attractive or unattractive according to the skill of the examiner and by quite minor modifications. With some attention to making it a game and removing any atmosphere of embarrassment it would almost certainly resume its place with its kind at the head of the list and be in no danger of rejection.

For another reason preferences cannot always be accepted at their face value. It is usual to find that, quite apart from the nature of the test, the easiest tests are most liked.* The present tests show a correlation of -0.1 between difficulty (see below) and preference, which is not high enough, however, to justify much alteration of the above preference order.†

The relative difficulty of the tests can be gauged from the following average scores, which, however, are set out here primarily to reveal sex differences in performance. Scores are as marks (items passed) out of a possible ten, except in the first two tests, which are scored in seconds and cannot, of course, be compared with the other tests with respect to difficulty.

* See “The Relation of Reported Preference to Performance in Problem Solving,” by H. L. Bowman, *Journ. Educ. Psych.*, April, 1932, where a correlation of $+0.46-0.03$ was found between preference and goodness of performance.

† There is also a correlation of preference with length of test amounting to -0.3 and of difficulty with length of test amounting to 0.4 . Partialling out length of test, therefore, the correlation of difficulty with preference becomes quite insignificant ($+0.03$).

TABLE II.
DIFFICULTY, SCATTER, AND SEX DIFFERENCE OF TESTS.

<i>Mean Deviation.</i>	<i>Test.</i>	<i>Average Score. Boys.</i>	<i>Average Score. Girls.</i>	<i>Differ- ence.</i>	<i>Girls or Boys leading.</i>
11.47	Séguin Form Board	<i>Secs.</i> 46.56	<i>Secs.</i> 43.48	<i>Secs.</i> 3.08	G.
33.14	Decroly Matching Game ..	115.30	95.74	19.56	G.
1.37	Picture Completion	<i>Marks.</i> 5.83	<i>Marks.</i> 6.52	<i>Marks.</i> .69	G.
1.35	Series	4.28	4.77	.49	G.
1.57	Inference Stories	6.00	6.48	.48	G.
1.37	Line's Test	3.79	4.02	.23	G.
1.46	Riddles	6.32	6.63	.31	G.
1.29	Puzzle Boxes	5.98	5.56	.42	B.
1.60	Substitution	6.62	7.38	.76	G.
2.39	Mazes	3.46	3.23	.23	B.
1.04	Social Groupings	8.22	7.64	.58	B.
1.20	Wrong Pictures	4.77	5.02	.25	G.
1.41	Similarities	6.17	6.77	.60	G.
1.36	Memory (General Knowledge)	7.52	7.46	.06	B.
1.55	Following Direction	6.38	7.15	.77	G.
1.52	Æsthetic Judgment	7.43	8.17	.74	G.
1.44	Naming Colours	7.56	8.13	.57	G.
2.19	Manikin	3.94	4.50	.56	G.
	Total Average	5.91	6.28		
	Average age of boys (in years)	5.96			
	Average age of girls (in years)		5.98		

From the total average score it is evident that we have chanced to hit on a slightly more intelligent sample of girls than of boys. In discovering more precisely the tests which particularly favour either boys or girls the raw difference score is not enough. A true comparison is best obtained through dividing this firstly by the actual score (i.e. expressing it as a percentage of the actual score of the lower group) to render the difference independent of the difficulty of the test, and secondly by dividing it by the deviation or scatter which exists in the combined group. For this deviation expresses the natural variability of score on the test arising from the fineness of its grading, which should be eliminated in comparing test with test for sex differences, since these differences would appear exaggerated in tests giving large differences in score for fine differences in ability. The mean deviations on each test have therefore been inserted in the above table (left). On this truer basis of comparison the tests especially favouring boys and girls respectively are as follows (first four tests at each extreme) :

TABLE III.

TESTS SHOWING MOST MARKED SEX DIFFERENCES. DIFFERENCES
REDUCED TO COMPARABLE INDICES.

<i>Favouring Boys.</i>	<i>Index.</i>	<i>Favouring Girls.</i>	<i>Index.</i>
Social Groupings	+·0680	Picture Completion ..	+·0863
Puzzle Boxes	+·0545	Series	+·0847
Mazes	+·0278	Following Directions ..	+·0780
General Knowledge ..	+·0059	Substitution	+·0717

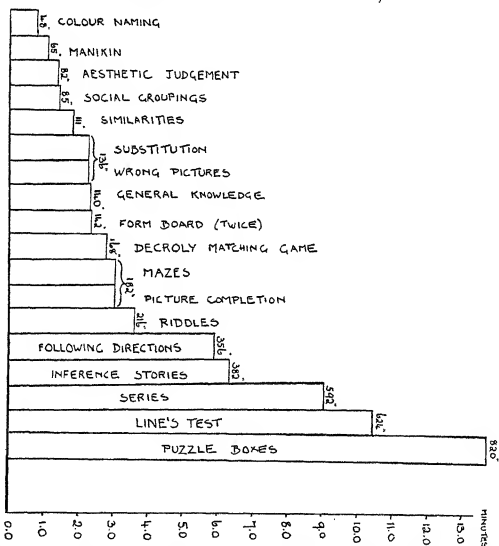
On the one hand (boys) tests demanding planfulness, resource, knowledge of the world; on the other, tests requiring deftness of hand, quickness to apprehend, ability to follow faithfully certain instructions and a sense of the appropriateness of things.

Since in no good intelligence tests in general use is there any marked difference of performance between boys and girls, the existence of such a difference in any test is a contributory reason for rejecting the test from a battery. Social Groupings and Puzzle Boxes might therefore well be rejected purely on the ground that they are measuring extensively special sex-linked abilities. The tests better done by the girls cannot be so easily rejected since we have good reason to believe that we are dealing with a more intelligent sample of girls and the tests in question are amongst those correlating most highly in the pool.

Another consideration in assessing the suitability of tests from the standpoint of the test construction is the time taken by each. We have already given some weight to this in the children's preferences, for we found a slight tendency to dislike tests for lengthiness alone. For the purposes of test construction one wants tests which will give the maximum diagnostic evidence in the shortest time. In a sense the goodness of a test cannot be assessed apart from the time taken, for every increase in the length of a test produces a higher reliability co-efficient and therefore a higher correlation (when uncorrected for attenuation) with the rest of the pool. Of course this increase of correlation with the pool can only proceed up to a certain point; the point where reliability is well-nigh perfect and loss of correlation from attenuation is nil. Were that not so the whole of our procedure of evaluating tests by correlation with "g" would be useless. A poor test, however long and reliable, cannot therefore yield higher correlation with "g" than does a good test of moderate length. To make our tests fairly comparable and of approximately equal reliability (apart from the nature of the test) we made them

of equal length with regard to the number of items on which to pass or fail (10). This would permit a better comparison of the goodness of the very nature of the test than would mere equality of time length. Nevertheless, since in practice time is important, an undue lengthiness (for the same number of pass or fail items) is adequate reason for rejecting a test, and unless such tests as Puzzle Boxes, Line's Test, Series and Inference Stories are particularly desirable on other grounds, they must be dropped.

DIAGRAM III.
APPROXIMATE TIME REQUIRED FOR EACH TEST.
(AVERAGES FOR ONE EXAMINER.)



(Columns proportional in length to time required. Figures represent seconds.)

Allied to this problem is the question of degree of difficulty and extent of scatter, for these also effect the correlations of the tests without being part of their intrinsic nature. A test well adjusted in difficulty to the subjects' capacities will generally give a distinctly better correlation than a test of exactly similar nature and form which is either too easy

or too hard. A glance at Table II will show that there are no extreme variations of difficulty. A correlation of difficulty (inverted average score) with goodness of test (Table I) confirms this by yielding a quite insignificant co-efficient ($+0.09 \pm .18$).

The extent of scatter in scores on a test is a matter bound up with the question of length, for whatever the actual number of items on which pass or failure is possible, the effective length, the number of items on which the sample of people concerned does in fact pass or fail, is measured by the scatter. Generally, with other things equal, the test of greater scatter (mean deviation) will yield rather greater correlation coefficients. Examined from this aspect our comparison of tests is not entirely satisfactory: a correlation of $+0.36 \pm .15$ ($.41 \pm .15$ on ranking formula) exists between goodness and scatter. If the scatter is expressed in a more comparable form, however, by dividing the magnitude of the scatter (mean deviation) by the size of the average score the correlation is found to be $+0.21 \pm .16$. With so few items (18 tests) the reliability of these coefficients is small and we can only conclude that a low positive correlation exists between scatter and goodness. From the point of view of constructing a test battery out of the identical tests used here this finding is not disconcerting, for their relative goodness remains as in Table I. But for concluding in a general way *which kind* of test is best this finding cannot be entirely overlooked. Two ways of allowing for differences of scatter suggest themselves; (1) to correct the coefficients by a mathematical formula to the values they would have if the scatter had been the same for all; (2) to estimate from regression coefficients the relative importance of scatter and goodness of tests in producing the final order and to correct the position of each test by allowing for its extent of scatter. The formulæ so far suggested for the former process are not widely approved,* whilst our data for the second are not very adequate. With regard to the practical object of making a test battery a possible course would be to use scatter only as a deciding factor when it is very extreme in either direction and when the test concerned is on the borderline of acceptance or rejection. Fortunately, with one exception (wrong pictures), the tests on the border line have very average deviations and do not owe their positions to extreme scatter values.

VII.—INDICATIONS FOR THE CONSTRUCTION OF INTELLIGENCE TESTS.

We desire to study the above data with two objectives: (1) the provision of the best possible test battery; and (2) the elucidation of

* We refer to the formulæ suggested by Professor Kelley and others.

In getting the final order* and correlation of the ten best tests from which to make our final selection we have to remember that the

<i>Correlations with Binet.</i>	<i>Test used by Stockton.</i>	<i>Essential Equivalent in our Tests.</i>
.68	Information	(General Knowledge).
.46	Pictorial Identities	(Similarities).
.45	Symbol Digit	(Substitution).
{ .46	Series Completion }	(Series).
{ .43	Pictorial Sequence }	
.42	Picture Completion	(Picture Completion).

average correlations (and those of Table I) are attenuated by including correlations with all the poorer tests. The average correlations of the ten best tests of Table I with themselves alone are as follows :

Memory (General Knowledge)483
Riddles470
Line's461
Mazes448
Following Directions436
Substitution429
Inference Stories413
Similarities401
Æsthetic Judgment385
Wrong Pictures383

Now from these we have to reject either Inference Stories or Riddles because they probably share a special ability. Inference Stories, being lower in correlation, is therefore struck out. Æsthetic Judgment is also under suspicion in this respect and is moreover very low on the list. It will therefore be left out of the battery.

One hesitates to cut down the battery to fewer than eight different tests, for in that way one runs again into the danger of giving an undue

* It is interesting to find that Stockton (*Psychological Monographs*, 1921, XXX, No. 137, "The Definition of Intelligence in Relation to Modern Methods of Mental Measurement," obtained the same order of goodness (with children of 9—13 years). The tests were, of course, not exactly similar to ours but we give the equivalent tests in this research in brackets in the list below. The correlations, too, were with the Binet test total, not with "g"; but the total Binet resultant is probably a fair approach to a "g" measurement.

weight to special abilities. The time required by these eight tests (about 33½ minutes), too, is about suitable for the powers of concentration of 4—8-year-olds. On the other hand, it might be considered rather short for a reliable measurement. Similarities and Wrong Pictures are, however, distinctly low in correlation. The latter, we have just seen, is in its nature a distinctly better test than it appears here, and could be improved by increasing the scatter. This has been done and the test has been retained in the battery.

Turning to other factors influencing our judgment—time and preference—we find Line's test unduly long, whilst Similarities is the shortest of all those under consideration. This decides us to retain Similarities. Line's Test is, however, so good that its rejection is scarcely to be contemplated. We decided to shorten it by presenting all the cards of each kind at once instead of placing them down one by one. The "game" element is thereby somewhat diminished, but, since we have shown that children tend to dislike tests for their length alone, the attractiveness of the test is probably not diminished.

It is difficult to say how far this final selection should be modified by our last consideration—the children's preference. Following Directions, General Knowledge, and Line's Test are relatively so little liked that one might be moved to reject them in spite of their higher saturation with intelligence. It must be remembered, however, that they are judged in comparison with tests specially designed to be highly attractive. And the measurement of their goodness as intelligence tests—which places them high—already takes into account any effects due to lack of interest ; so that the interference due to lack of attractiveness cannot be very marked. Moreover, it is a striking fact that the tests least liked are precisely those which tap intelligence most. Of the five last tests in Diagram II, four are included in the ten best tests : of the five leading tests in the preference diagram not one is a good test. Perhaps the best tests, precisely because they make the biggest demands on general mental energy, are bound to be always the least liked—other things being equal.

The battery of tests for 4—8-year-olds was therefore made from the above surviving eight tests.* Each test was increased in length from ten to twelve items to bring the total time up to about 40 minutes, thus attempting a happy compromise between length, reliability, and the children's tendency to fatigue.

* This test battery, duly standardized, is being published as the Dartington Scale (Scale Q in the Cattell Intelligence Tests) by Messrs. Harrap.

VIII.—COMMENTS AND SUMMARY.

Although the principles laid down at the beginning of this article, whilst critically examining current tests and in planning new ones, receive considerable confirmation, there are some striking and interesting exceptions. Tests demanding a high degree of ability to perceive relationships of a complex kind—Line's Test, Mazes, Riddles—do indeed come at the top of the list,* whilst those putting emphasis on other abilities—Form Board, Naming Colours, Social Groupings, Manikin—are revealed to be poor tests.

But, contrary to expectation, Series and Picture Completion rank low, whilst Substitution and Memory rank high. The latter test—apparently one of general knowledge rather than intelligence—is indeed an instance of the stone which the builders rejected having become the head of the corner. The tests requiring knowledge in restricted fields—Naming Colours, Social Groupings—do, however, definitely fail, as was predicted. This is in accord with the usual findings with older children and adults: that tests of general knowledge correlate well with intelligence but tests of restricted skills or knowledge scarcely at all.† The logic of our methods compels us to include General Knowledge in our battery because of its high correlations. But it is obvious that general knowledge is not intelligence. It is rather a consequence of the operations of intelligence. And such tests, measuring not the thing itself but its products, are always in some measure dangerous, for the usual correspondence may some day be absent, as when one tests a child brought up in very primitive surroundings (or a deaf child).

Even so the correlations are usually (for general knowledge) decidedly lower than for a reasonably good test of intelligence. Now the explanation of the unexpectedly high valuation found here probably lies in the conditions of this particular test. The child was told to "point to the drum, the lamp, the elephant, etc.," but not allowed to begin pointing until all had been uttered. That is to say, a good performance in immediate memory was necessary to success in the test. And that is

* Of the five new tests suggested, three actually appear in the first ten survivors. Series probably fails through the poorness of interest aroused and the strangeness of the instruction. Puzzle Boxes evidently measure some special aptitude, but would in any case be rejected because of their great time consumption, (Diagram III) and their susceptibility to a sex difference.

† McCrae (see *Abilities of Man*, Spearman, p. 277), however, found a correlation of .83 between scholastic information and "g" but a much lower correlation of "g" with general information. We must remember here that for the schoolboy scholastic information is really the most general information, for it represents the universe most common to all the children, whereas "general information" depends on the vagaries of the home environment.

a striking feature of all the tests which, in spite of having little emphasis on comprehension of relations, have yet turned out good tests. It is particularly true of the three unexpectedly good tests—Memory (General Knowledge), Substitution, and Similarities.* From what is known of the nature of “g” it is not at all obvious that immediate memory is one of its manifestations. Confirmation of such a close connection in young children would be an important guide in designing intelligence tests for them and incidentally justify the use of such tests as Repeating Numbers in the Binet Scale.†

No obvious reason emerges, however, for the poor validity of Picture Completion or Series. The latter evoked very little interest, it is true (Diagram II), and some children confused the instruction with that for Line’s Test. Picture Completion, on the other hand, seemed satisfactory in every way. Is it possible that the selective form is, contrary to experience with older children, less effective than the inventive form of this test? (though the Healy Tests are selective). Or must we admit that Picture Completion is in fact a poor test,‡ not to be compared, for some reason, with the analogous Sentence Completion test?

Puzzle Boxes had been introduced, it will be remembered, in an attempt to employ the situations used as intelligence tests with animals, in the hope of getting the full interest of young children. In spite of the immense drive which these tests undoubtedly evoked they have proved a complete failure. It was, of course, foreseen that the tests, being necessarily tests mainly of ability to handle spatial relations, were to a large extent tests of mechanical aptitude. But in accordance with the psychological law of diminishing returns (with high “g”) we had expected that for the low intelligences of children the general ability factor would be called out to a greater extent than with higher intelligences,§ i.e.,

* Although the judgment of the similarity relationship is concerned here, this is not really the most difficult part of the operation.

† The results of Fischer and Ullert, “Contribution à l’étude des tests de mémoire immédiate,” *Arch. de Psych.*, 1929, 21, however, do not bear out this suggestion. Memory for figures and forms showed no significant relationship to age, but memory for pictures, words, and phrases was much better. Perhaps we may conclude from this that immediate memory tests are only good tests of intelligence when the content is complex.

‡ Stockton’s result (*op. cit.*) would favour such a conclusion.

§ According to this principle simple tests which show no high saturation with “g” in adults, or in a population of very able children, should show more saturation when correlated for a population of dull or very young children. In view of this we were a little surprised at the relatively low correlations found among all these tests with young children. Stockton, it is true, found that the tests which correlated quite well when used on children of 9—13 had lower inter-correlations on children of 7 and 8. He also found that the order of goodness altered. Our order agrees with his 9—13 year order, but not with the 7—8, and we are inclined to think that some disturbing factor must have appeared in his 7—8 group both to lower the correlations and to change their order.

that the test would also be well saturated with "g." The failure of this assumption makes one wonder to what extent Kohler and others are right in assessing the intelligence of apes by such situations.

The magnitude of the intercorrelation of these tests may seem surprisingly low compared with those usual in tests with older children (even the ten best tests fall only between .4 and .5 in correlation with "g"). These diminutive values are, of course, due to the shortness of the tests. Increased to thirty items (a value comparable with the length of most adult or school tests), the first two correlations taken, Memory with Mazes and Memory with Riddles, become, according to the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula, respectively, .78 and .79. For the purpose of finding the relative validity of the tests low correlations do not matter, but if they are to be compared with other research results they must first be brought on to the basis of a comparable length.

The main results of this research may be summarized as follows.

(a) A battery of eight tests adapted to children of four to eight years has been selected, on the basis of saturation with "g," freedom from group factors, attractiveness to young children, and length, from eighteen tests: (1) representative of most varieties in the field of general use; and (2) containing some new types constructed in accordance with the "relation" theory of "g."

(b) Tests most attractive to children are those involving action and concrete material and especially those making the least demand on intelligence.

(c) The best intelligence tests are those requiring either education of relations (and correlates) or effectiveness of immediate memory.

(d) A number of tests occurring in the Binet, the Merrill-Palmer, and various Performance Scales are relatively poor tests of intelligence.

We wish to thank the L.C.C., the headmistresses who kindly gave facilities, Miss Mildred Nevill, who carried out a good deal of the testing, and Mrs. M. H. Cattell for constant assistance in preparing the new test material.

Résumé.

DES TESTS D'INTELLIGENCE POUR L'ÂGE INTELLECTUEL DE 4-8 ANS.

Partant de l'argument que la plupart des tests actuellement employés pour les enfants de 4-8 ans ont une validité basse, et dans l'espoir d'établir des principes généraux et de créer un ensemble solide de tests d'intelligence, les investigateurs se posèrent la tâche de démontrer la corrélation entre 18 types distincts de tests,

dont 13 étaient un choix représentatif des tests employés actuellement et 5 étaient nouvellement construits selon la théorie que "g" représente la capacité de discerner et d'employer des relations compliquées.

Les sujets étaient 50 garçons et 50 filles entre cinq ans et demi et six ans et demi. On établit aussi l'ordre de préférence des enfants par la méthode des paires de comparaisons. La validité des tests fut déterminée par le degré de leurs corrélations avec le facteur central.

Tout en tenant compte du détachement des facteurs centraux (le critère tetrad des différences), des préférences des enfants et de la durée des tests, on choisit sur les dix tests les plus valides, un ensemble de huit comprenant la Mémoire (Intelligence Générale), les Enigmes, le test des Lignes, les Labyrinthes, l'Exécution des Ordres, la Substitution, les Ressemblances, et les Tableaux contenant des Erreurs. Parmi les tests rejetés étaient les Tableaux de la Forme, les Groupements Sociaux, les Boîtes Enigmes, le Jugement Esthétique, les Noms des Couleurs, et le test du Mannequin. Les capacités qu'exigeaient le plus souvent les meilleurs tests semblaient être le pouvoir de discerner les relations, et la mémoire immédiate.

ÜBERSICHT.

INTELLIGENZPRÜFUNGEN FÜR EIN ALTER, DAS DEN NORMALEN GEISTIGEN LEISTUNGEN EINES KINDES VON VIER BIS ACHT JAHREN ENTSPRICHT.

In der Annahme, dass die meisten üblichen Tests für Kinder von 4-8 Jahren von geringem Wert sind, und in der Hoffnung, allgemeine Grundsätze aufzuklären und eine wertvolle Reihe von Intelligenztests hervorzubringen, stellten die Forscher sich die Aufgabe, 18 verschiedene Testtypen in Wechselbeziehung zu bringen, wovon 13 typische Auslesen von jetzt gebräuchlichen Tests und 5 im Einklang mit der Theorie neu aufgestellt wurden, dass "g" die Fähigkeit ist, verwickelte Beziehungen wahrzunehmen und anzuwenden.

Die Versuchspersonen waren fünfzig Knaben und fünfzig Mädchen zwischen $5\frac{1}{2}$ und $6\frac{1}{2}$ Jahren. Die Ordnung, in der sie die Tests vornahmen, wurde auch herausgearbeitet, und zwar durch die Methode der paarigen Vergleiche. Der Wert der Tests wurde durch den Grad ihrer Korrelationen mit dem allgemeinen Faktor bestimmt.

Indem man Rücksicht auf die Freiheit von Gruppenfaktoren (Kriterium der Vierzahldifferenz), die Vorliebe der Kinder und Dauer der Tests nahm, wählte man eine Reihe von acht von den zehn besten Tests aus, die Erinnerung (Allgemeines Wissen), Rätsel, den Line'schen Test, Irreführung, Folge von Befehlen, Substituierung, Ähnlichkeiten und falsche Bilder enthielten. Unter den abgewiesenen Tests befanden sich Formenbretter, soziale Gruppierungen, Vexierdosens, ästhetisches Urteil, das Nennen von Farben und der Manikin'sche Test. Die Schätzung von Verhältnissen und der wirksame Gebrauch des unmittelbaren Gedächtnisses schienen von grösstem Belang bei den besten Tests.

THE CRITERION OF ACCURACY IN REPRESENTATIONAL ART.

By T. ELDER DICKSON.

(From the Departments of Psychology and Fine Art, University of Edinburgh.)

I.—*Introductory.*

II.—*Definitions.*

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(a) *The aims of art education.*

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(b) *The view that representational drawing supplies the necessary technical skill for artistic expression.*

(c) *The view that technical knowledge and practical experience are necessary for complete appreciation of art.*

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VII.—*The psychology of the drawing act: Ayer's analysis.*

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(a) *Phenomenal regression (Thouless).*

(b) *Its relation to the teaching of the laws of perspective and to art instruction.*

IX.—*Summary and conclusions.*

References.

I.—INTRODUCTORY.

THE opinion which this paper will express, and attempt to substantiate, is that the criterion of accuracy employed as a means of estimating drawing ability and accepted as an aim in the teaching of representational drawing is psychologically unsound and detrimental to the development of true artistic ability. It will be concerned to show that the æsthetic

and educational theory underlying the teaching of representational drawing is not only at variance with the historical development of world art, but is out of touch with modern tendencies in art and with the findings of modern psychology.

II.—DEFINITIONS.

At the outset it will be advisable to define several terms which will appear frequently throughout the paper. A clear understanding of these terms will materially aid in following the argument.

(1) *Drawing*.—The term "drawing" will be employed to connote (a) the act of reproducing upon paper or canvas in an artistic manner, the appearance of an object or objects as observed from a particular point of view, by means of lines, colours, tones and masses; and (b) the product of such an act.

(2) *Representational drawing*.—This term will be employed to connote (a) the act of reproducing as accurately as possible, upon paper or canvas, the supposed appearance of an object or group of objects as observed from a particular point of view; and (b) the product of such an act.

(3) *Art*.—This term will be employed to connote (a) a fundamental activity of man exercised for its own sake, issuing in the creation of sensuous objects, each of which expresses or embodies in its wholeness the psycho-physical state of its creator and yields him an immediate and unique satisfaction; and (b) the products of such an activity, generally called "works of art."

III.—HISTORICAL RÉSUMÉ.

(a) It has long been recognized that the aim of art teaching is twofold: "to cultivate in the children sufficient skill to enable them to express their own ideas in some form of art, and also to stimulate the growth of such sympathy and sensitiveness as may lead eventually to æsthetic appreciation."* In the past, the executive, as distinct from the receptive, aspect of the artistic activity has been given undue pre-eminence in the course of instruction. This may be attributed partly to

* *Report of the Consultative Committee on the Primary School*. Board of Education. (H.M. Stationery Office, p. 189.) Vide also *Curriculum for Pupils of Twelve to Fifteen Years (Advanced Division)*, Scottish Council for Research in Education, University of London Press, 1931, Section VII, Art and Craftsmanship, p. 184. Aim, "To develop in the pupil a consciousness of beauty, the habit of acquiring and expressing knowledge in form and colour, and the practice of critical judgment in æsthetic products; to stimulate the creative impulse to Art, and improve construction by inculcating the idea that beauty and fitness for purpose are inseparable."

the original utilitarian purpose of 'art' education, as prescribed by the Department of Science and Art, and partly to the failure of educationists to observe the distinction between the productive and the receptive aspects of the artistic activity to which I have just referred.

(b) A long period of experimentation followed the introduction of 'art' instruction into the school curriculum. At first the course was very limited and, strictly speaking, could not be described as art instruction at all. The syllabus "took no note of the natural instincts and interests of children—being based upon that used for the training of adults engaged in industrial occupations."* Gradually, as educationists began to recognize the true nature of art and its significance in life and education, the aims of instruction were modified and extended. In the absence, however, of a sound theory of art education, and in deference to a stubborn conservatism, the old methods were continued, with various modifications, to meet the wider ideals. The main purpose of the course was to enable the pupil to represent with reasonable accuracy anything he saw. Despite the advancement of a more enlightened view of the artistic activity, representational drawing "at present occupies the first place in most schools for older scholars."†

IV.—ASSUMPTIONS UNDERLYING PRESENT THEORY AND PRACTICE.

Three main assumptions underlie present theory and practice in art education: (a) That all children are educable as graphic executants and that this is desirable; (b) that representational drawing supplies the disciplinary training in technical skill necessary for complete artistic expression‡; (c) that technical knowledge and practical experience are necessary for complete appreciation of art.§

(a) Regarding the first of these assumptions, it will generally be agreed that all children (excepting physical and mental defectives) are educable in a practical, artistic sense within certain limits, but as these limits depend upon the original endowment of the pupil, it is very doubtful whether continuous executive training, as presently understood,

* *Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers*, Board of Education, p. 270.

† *Ibid.*, p. 272 (ii). Vide also (a) *Circular* 30 (1932), Scottish Educational Department, p. 18, Section VII, Art. "Each course should be well balanced and should be based on a foundation of sound representational work"; and (b) *Curriculum for Pupils of Twelve to Fifteen Years (Advanced Division)*, University of London Press, pp. 189-190.

‡ *Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers*, p. 272 (ii). Representational drawing "supplies the technical skill which forms the practical basis of art."

§ *Ibid.*, p. 273. "Persons who have some degree of practical skill in any of the arts appreciate that art more fully than those who have none."

is desirable in all cases. It may be noted, first, that only a small proportion of pupils attending school will ever be called upon to create (graphically), and that only those specially endowed will create out of spontaneous impulse. In the second place, the present system of executive training, being based upon skill rather than art, does not, I submit, lead to the development of true ability in graphic art. And, in the third place, by giving precedence to these aspects of the productive artistic activity which are concerned with graphic processes, the present practice tends to overlook the true artistic and educational significance of craftsmanship. These objections point to a new conception of art education, which will provide greater facilities for the development of its receptive aspect, and for the inclusion of a greater amount of craft and handwork than present practice allows.

(b) With regard to the second assumption, that representational drawing supplies the disciplinary training in technical skill necessary for complete artistic expression, it cannot be admitted that this is a valid base upon which to found a theory of art education. The assumption is open to three main objections: First, that the type of technical skill developed by representational drawing is altogether different from that required in art. Technical skill involves (i) the manipulation of a medium and (ii) a motive or purpose. When the former is adequate to the demands of the latter, technical skill is functioning at its highest level of efficiency. In this sense it would be right to describe as a good technician a juggler whose manipulation of his material was adequate to his motive; but it would be wrong to describe him as a good artist. This is not to assert that the juggler may not be an artist, but his claim to this designation can only be upheld if his motive is to express an artistic purpose, and not to juggle, and only in so far as he successfully achieves that purpose. Similarly, a painter who manipulates his medium in order accurately to represent the visible appearance of an objective fact may be described as a good technician, if his manipulation of his medium is adequate to his representational purpose, but he can claim to be an artist only by abandoning his representational purpose and manipulating his medium in a manner which adequately expresses an artistic one. Thus the process of manipulating a medium towards the end of representation cannot be regarded as an exercise of the artistic activity, but a mere exercise of technical skill; and from the point of view of art education the exercise of the artistic mental power is fundamental. In the second place, representational technical skill can only secure literal transcription of what is *supposed* to be the visible appearance of objects; which is, properly regarded, not an artistic, but a scientific

achievement. I have italicised the word "supposed" because it has been experimentally demonstrated* that there is considerable divergence between what the eye actually sees and the shapes and sizes in plane projection which are determined by the laws of perspective. There is, therefore, no objective criterion of visible appearance. Representational drawing must accordingly be judged by mathematical standards (the spatial properties of the plane projection); and this, from the point of view of art education, is absurd. And, in the third place, the assumption is at variance with the evidence of history; in point of fact, it is refuted alike by Classic, Oriental, Gothic and Modern art. To indulge in a detailed argument here in support of this contention is unnecessary; the statement is justified by established historical fact. It is sufficient to point out that the history of Classic art shows that when representation became an end in itself, as in the Hellenistic period, the quality of art deteriorated. Oriental art has never embraced representationalism; and the finest manifestations of Gothic art are as far removed from representation as day is from night. Modern art likewise refutes the assumption. The naïve art of Le Douanier Rousseau,† who began serious painting late in life without any technical knowledge, in particular may be cited in justification of my contention that modern art refutes the æsthetic and educational theory underlying the teaching of representational drawing.

(c) The validity of the third assumption depends upon the meaning attached to the term "appreciation." In æsthetics this term is used in two not very clearly defined senses: first, with reference to the capacity to estimate or judge the work of art in the light of previous knowledge and experience; second, with reference to the capacity to derive æsthetic satisfaction and enjoyment from art, independently of previous knowledge and experience. The term is employed in a third sense, which partakes of both meanings, but this usage is so vague and unscientific as to render its discussion here impossible. In its essence, art appreciation is, as McDougall asserts,‡ "an attitude in which we are content to contemplate without belief or doubt; we accept and enjoy the appearance without enquiring into the reality of that which appears, just because the

* R. H. Thouless: "Phenomenal Regression to the Real Object," *British Journal of Psychology*, Vols. XXI, XXII.

† Le Douanier Rousseau (1844-1910) was at one time an excise officer. In his spare time he played the violin and painted pictures. When over forty years of age he gave up his post to devote the rest of his life to art. He "knew nothing of drawing as it was taught in the art schools, and nothing of impressionism," but "his hand did exactly what his mind, his spirit and his imagination willed" (R. H. Wilenski, *French Painting*, Medici Society, pp. 327-329).

‡ W. McDougall: *An Outline of Psychology*, p. 376.

appearance yields an immediate satisfaction Such an attitude is, I submit, psychologically incompatible with the intellectual process of estimating, judging, and criticising implied in the first and third of these usages. If this view be accepted, then the validity of the third assumption underlying the present theory and practice of art education cannot be admitted.

V.—‘DRAWING’ AND ‘ART.’

From the standpoint of art education, the distinction between ‘drawing’ and ‘art’ is of fundamental importance. As a consequence of the teaching practice of the past, the term “drawing” has acquired a meaning in everyday language which limits its application to representational drawing, as defined in Section II of this paper. In recent years, however, as a result of a change in fundamental ideas concerning the artistic activity, the course of instruction in art has manifestly altered. The introduction of imaginative drawing, design and craftwork has been an important forward step in the history of art education. But current practice, with its insistence upon representational drawing, suggests that educationists have not yet fully realized the true significance of the change in terminology now generally employed in educational discourse.* Contrary to current opinion, representational drawing is, I submit, neither a desirable nor an essential discipline for the attainment of artistic expression. Technical skill in art is not a matter of routine learning, but a personal quest and discovery of the means necessary for the expression of artistic feeling; and this can be developed only by the constant exercise of the artistic mental power. If my thesis is right, then what passes as art education at present is not true art education at all, but mainly (though not wholly), training in scientific technical skill.

* Witness (a) the fact that “drawing” is the official designation applied to the subject by the Board of Education (*Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers*); and (b) that “drawing and elementary art” is used in the *Report of the Consultative Committee on the Primary School* (1931), as if to draw a distinction between these two activities. While admitting the relevance of technical studies to art training, the committee is careful to issue a warning against possible dangers: “By training mere technical skill it is possible to foster the desire to draw, but it is essential that the art should remain within the child’s natural understanding and ability, and should not assume an artificial and sophisticated quality because undue emphasis is laid on technique” (p. 190). Again, in the publication *Curriculum for Pupils of Twelve to Fifteen Years (Advanced) Division*, issued by the Scottish Council for Research in Education (1931), the distinction between ‘drawing’ and ‘art’ is noted (p. 189), but the need for realistic representation is admitted, because it leads to the acquisition of “technical skill in various media and the *development of appreciation*” (p. 183; the italics are mine), and because “representational drawing is undoubtedly suited for school work, in that it is less affected by interruption . . . and further, it lends itself admirably to the *compiling of full and orderly portfolios for presentation*” (p. 189; italics mine).

VI.—ABILITY IN REPRESENTATIONAL DRAWING.

(a) Broadly speaking, there may be distinguished three main classes of executants, graded according to their representational drawing ability. In estimating this ability the criterion will be that of accuracy in representation, based on perception of the following characteristics :

- (1) Perception of the particular object or objects as distinguished from other similar objects.
- (2) Perception of the position of the object in relation to the observer and to other objects coming within the particular field of observation.
- (3) Perception of the precise character of the object or objects in respect of all these qualities (colour, texture, etc.) which distinguish it (or them) from other similar objects.

First, the lowest grade : those whose representations are so inferior as to render (1) and (2) impossible or extremely doubtful, and (3) definitely impossible. Second, the middle grade : those whose representations are sufficiently accurate as to render (1) quite certain, but (2) and (3) doubtful. This will be the largest group. Third, the highest grade : those whose representations are more or less accurate in respect of all three characteristics. As a certain amount of overlap is inevitable, these groups will not, in practice, be clearly defined ; but for present purposes the three groups may be taken as corresponding to the more general classification of poor drawers, average drawers, and superior drawers.

(b) It is self-evident that of the total number of pupils receiving training in representational drawing the ability of those in the lowest grade will not improve to any considerable extent by continued instruction and practice,* and that their drawings will have no practical value as representations of physical facts. With regard to the second grade, this group will be educable only up to the standard attained by the "average pupil," whose drawings are neither accurate enough to be of any practical value as representations, nor poor enough to be wholly devoid of representational value. But if, as I have submitted, representational drawing is fundamentally a scientific activity, it is obvious that there is not justification for the teaching of representational drawing to pupils whose productions fail to satisfy the practical test of scientific accuracy. And with regard to the third grade, the superior drawers, it may be

* This is not to deny that some improvement in technical skill may be produced by special training designed to remedy specific partial disabilities (for instance, disabilities affecting the motor-graphic or optical-perceptual processes), which may interfere with drawing ability ; but as the application of therapeutic methods lies outside the orbit of ordinary school work, the statement (and the one which follows it) may stand unchallenged.

pointed out that the only result to be gained by continued training in representational drawing will be more accurate representations.

(c) In his presidential address at the Conference of Educational Associations, Sir William Rothenstein said that "we are all equipped by nature to go as far as possible in some practical direction," and that he was doubtful "of the value of making all children draw or learn music."* As Sir William is a teacher of long and wide experience, his statement cannot be brushed lightly aside. For clearly a scheme of education which ignores the existence of a relatively uneducable class of executants, by insisting on making its members try to do something which, in virtue of the limitations of their natural endowment, they are unfitted, is wasteful and badly-founded. Indiscriminate insistence on executive work of a representational kind instils in many pupils a prejudice against art, which only a particularly happy set of circumstances can eradicate.

VII.—THE PSYCHOLOGY OF THE DRAWING ACT: AYER'S ANALYSIS.

Ayer has pointed out† that "the complete act of drawing is composed of two major processes which are quite distinct. It consists of an optical perceptual process and a motor-graphic part, each of which is composed of subordinate partial processes. In the optical-perceptual process the eye receives the sensory stimuli from the object in view, and the mind assimilates the perceived impression on the basis of previously acquired experience with sensory material. In the motor-graphic process the hand is set in motion to reproduce the perceived and more or less worked-over image of the original object." Analysing the optical-perceptual part of the drawing activity, Ayer distinguishes the following characteristics: (1) The purely optical process; (2) the sensational process; (3) the awakening of percepts which tend to be present and apperception; (4) assimilation; (5) secondary reproduction of earlier associations; and (6) preconceived observation. Three main characteristics are recognized in the motor-graphic part: (1) Drawing by optical image; (2) kinæsthetic control; (3) control by watching results. Ayer bases his observations on the experiments of Albein,‡ who emphasizes the fact "that the preceding optical-perceptual process of drawing varies individually in its composition, its components and the significance for the whole process"§—a fact which explains in part individual

* *Times Educational Supplement*, January 9th, 1932.

† Ayer: *The Psychology of Drawing*, p. 87.

‡ Albein: *Behalten und Wiedergabe einfacher Formen*, 1907.

§ Ayer: *The Psychology of Drawing*, p. 90.

variations in drawing ability. Accuracy in executive ability, therefore, may depend upon very varied factors. A child, for instance, whose optical-perceptual processes are highly developed might be a bad executant as a result of defects in his motor-graphic processes, and vice versa.*

VIII.—RECENT EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH.

(a) Recent experimental research into the psychology of perception by Dr. Thouless, of Glasgow University, brings new evidence bearing on this point, which is of the very utmost significance. Dr. Thouless states: "If a subject is shown an inclined circle and is asked to select from a number of figures the one which represents the shape seen by him, he chooses without hesitation an ellipse. This ellipse, however, is widely different from the one which represents the shape of the inclined circle indicated by the laws of perspective, being much nearer the circular form. The subject sees an inclined figure neither in its 'real' shape nor in the shape which is its perspective projection, but a compromise between these."† Clearly to understand his experiments, it will be necessary to define Thouless's terms. By "real" shape he means "true physical shape"; "perspective shape" means the shape of the object in accordance with the laws of perspective; and "phenomenal shape" means the actually seen shape of the object. Thouless has been able to show by experiment that phenomenal regression applies to the perception of shape, parallel line, brightness, hue and size. "Under ordinary conditions of binocular vision, the actually experienced character of the object (or the 'phenomenal character') is a compromise between the 'real' character of the object and the character given by peripheral stimulation, whether this character is shape, relative size or relative brightness. In all these cases the phenomenal character shows a tendency away from the stimulus character towards the 'real' character of the object. As a general name for this tendency, in whatever kind of perceptual character it is found, we may use the term *phenomenal regression to the 'real' object*, or, more shortly, *phenomenal regression*."‡

Now, as the degree of phenomenal regression varies from one individual to another, it is obvious that a drawing which appears correct

* Meumann (*Experimentelle Pädagogik*) draws attention to the interesting fact that he found subjects possessed of excellent visual acuity and manual dexterity who could not draw.

† R. H. Thouless: "Phenomenal Regression to the Real Object," *British Journal of Psychology*, Vol. XXI, p. 339.

‡ *Ibid.* p. 343.

to one person may appear quite wrong to another. A pupil with a high index of phenomenal regression will draw a foreshortened circle (for example, a plate) much nearer the circular form than a pupil whose index is lower; and, it is important to notice, both indices may differ from that of the teacher.

(b) The laws of perspective, it may be noted, are not the laws of the ways we 'see.' Clearly, then, the usual devices adopted in teaching children to draw foreshortened figures not only do not teach them *to draw what they see*, but actually teach them to draw what, in all probability, they do not see. By employing such methods the child's drawing is "reconditioned to the stimulus object (perspective shape)* instead of the phenomenal object," which is the object he actually sees. From the point of view of art education the significance of the discovery of phenomenal regression cannot be over-estimated. Dr. Thouless himself appears to take an altogether too moderate view of the importance of his researches for art teaching.† "On the whole," he states, "there is probably sufficient ground for justifying the teaching of strict laws of perspective to those learning to draw. A simple set of rules is better than a complicated one. Moreover, the uncorrected tendency is to draw the phenomenal figure which is at the opposite extreme of error (if the object is realistic representation), and the combined effect of the uncorrected tendency and the learning of strict perspective rules may well result in a practically satisfactory compromise."‡ But, in point of fact, the teaching of perspective rules, at all events to school children, is probably not undertaken even by the most ardent advocates of representational drawing. The commonest method adopted is that of teaching the children to make measurements by holding the pencil or ruler out at arm's length and other similar devices, but the pupils are exhorted *to draw what they see*. Actually, however, the method is only of very limited practical value, because precise measurements are difficult to make by these means (the younger the child the greater the difficulty), with the result that in the long run the child trusts to his perceptions. Moreover, if we assume that the child does make accurate measurements and applies them to his drawing, the result may not look right to him, and if his index of phenomenal regression is very high, it will look all wrong. The psychological importance of this cannot be over-emphasized, because the first thing the teacher must do is to lead the child to have

* The brackets are mine.

† R. H. Thouless: "Phenomenal Regression to the Real Object, II." *British Journal of Psychology*, Vol. XXII, p. 28.

‡ Ibid., p. 29.

§ *Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers*, pp. 298-300, Sections 35 and 36.

confidence in himself and to believe in the rightness of his own efforts. Confusion will baffle him and engender diffidence and probably lead to strained relations with the misunderstanding teacher.

IX.—SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS.

(1) The aim of art education is twofold : to develop the means of expression by executive training and to stimulate the growth of such sympathy and sensitiveness as may lead to the appreciation of art.

(2) In the past the executive, as distinct from the receptive, aspect of art education, has predominated. This may be attributed partly to the original utilitarian purpose of 'art' education and partly to the failure of educationists to observe the distinction between the productive and the receptive aspects of the artistic activity.

(3) Despite the growth of knowledge concerning the nature of the art activity, representational drawing (the act of reproducing as accurately as possible on paper or canvas the supposed appearance of things as observed from a particular point of view) occupies the principal place in the present practice of art education.

(4) Three main assumptions underlie present practice : (a) That all children are educable as graphic executants, and that this is desirable ; (b) that representational drawing supplies the technical skill necessary for complete artistic expression ; (c) that technical knowledge and practical experience are necessary for complete appreciation of art.

(5) These assumptions do not appear to be justified. The principal objections are : first, with regard to (a), only a comparatively small number of pupils attain the standard of accuracy aimed at, and few are by natural endowment equipped with special graphic ability ; second, with regard to (b), representational drawing develops a type of skill that is altogether different from that required in art ; and third, with regard to (c), apart from the ambiguity of the term appreciation, there is no evidence to support the assumption.

(6) From the point of view of art education there appears to be no justification for the teaching of representational drawing. Based upon skill of hand and scientific observation, it is fundamentally not an artistic but a scientific activity. Literal accuracy can only be secured by scientifically analysing the visible appearance of things. As such a process is incompatible with artistic expression, representational drawing cannot be regarded as an exercise of the artistic mental power. The exercise of this power is considered fundamental to art education.

(7) The present insistence upon graphic execution tends to obscure the true æsthetic and educational significance of craftwork and the importance and value of promoting the development of appreciation by means other than practical training.

(8) These considerations point to the need for a new theory of art education and a new orientation of teaching method, that will pay greater regard to (a) the artistic and educational values of craftwork, and (b) the purely appreciative aspect of the artistic mental power.

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Résumé

LE CRITÉRIUM DE LA FIDÉLITÉ DANS L'ART REPRÉSENTATIONNEL.

L'éducation artistique comporte deux aspects principaux, à savoir, l'exécutif et le réceptif. Dans le passé c'est celui-là qui prédominait. Dernièrement, cependant, on est venu à reconnaître l'importance de celui-ci. Mais, malgré la croissance des connaissances en ce qui concerne la nature de l'activité artistique, le dessin représentationnel (l'action de représenter aussi fidèlement que possible sur le papier, ou la toile, l'apparence supposée des objets, vus d'un certain point) occupe encore la place principale dans l'éducation artistique. La fidélité absolue ne peut être assurée que par l'analyse scientifique de l'apparence visible des objets. Puisqu'un tel procédé est incompatible avec l'art, on ne peut pas considérer le dessin représentationnel comme un exercice de la capacité intellectuelle, artistique, qui soit essentiel à l'éducation artistique. Basé sur l'habileté manuelle et sur l'observation scientifique ce n'est point une activité artistique, mais une activité scientifique, et l'exercice en est nuisible au développement de la véritable aptitude artistique.

ÜBERSICHT.

DAS GENAUIGKEITSKRITERIUM BEI DER VORSTELLUNGSKUNST.

Kunsterziehung hat zwei Hauptseiten, nämlich, die vollziehende und die empfängliche. Vorherrschend in der Vergangenheit war jene. Unlängst hat man aber die Wichtigkeit dieser anerkannt. Jedoch, ungeachtet der erweiterten Kenntnisse der Art des Kunstverfahrens spielt Vorstellungszeichnen (das möglichst genaue Wiedergeben auf Papier oder Leinwand des vermuteten Äusseren von Dingen, die von einem besonderen Gesichtspunkt gesehen sind) die Hauptrolle beim Unterricht in der Kunst. Wörtliche Genauigkeit kann nur durch wissenschaftliche Analyse des sichtbaren Äusseren der Dinge zuwege gebracht werden. Da ein solches Verfahren mit der Kunst unvereinbar ist, so darf man die Vorstellungskunst als eine Betätigung des künstlerischen Geistesvermögens nicht betrachten, das der Kunsterziehung zugrunde liegt. Da die Basis davon Handfertigkeit und wissenschaftliche Beobachtung ist, so ist es wesentlich nicht eine künstlerische, sondern eine wissenschaftliche Tätigkeit und dessen Ausübung ist der Weiterbildung wahren künstlerischen Vermögens schädlich.

DISCUSSION ON MEASURING GEOGRAPHICAL PERSPECTIVE.

(A) By H. EGGINK.

(B) By E. J. G. BRADFORD.

(A)

WITH reference to Mr. Bradford's article in the November, 1932, issue of this Journal, I should like to put forward certain criticisms.

If I understand Mr. Bradford correctly, he asserts that :

- (1) Geographical relationships can hardly be regarded as logical in the narrower sense.
- (2) The main task of geography in schools is teaching "perspective." A locality is appreciated in proper perspective when a knowledge of its location will fix its position on the scale of gradations of any of the phenomena, the world distribution of which has been studied.
- (3) The pupils' insight into perspective increases little during their secondary school years.

Those who study the results of the tests set by Bradford will at once agree to the truth of (3) ; the question remains, whether the tests are right. Allow me to submit them to a closer examination. Tests B.1 and 3 refer to latitude and longitude and the map. Insight is not needed in this case, not even perspective—only a mental picture of the map. (In this connection we must remember that all our maps give incorrect distances.) In our schools, therefore, we only refer to latitude and longitude, in order to teach the pupils to handle the index at the back of the atlas. And we *measure* distances with the help of the scale ; memorising is superfluous. Suppose Bradford had asked what is the advantage of Mercator projection, would not the answers of the older pupils have been better than those of the younger ones ? And does he not agree with me that logical thinking is required for *cartographical* insight ?

Test B.2 proves as little : inquires into memorised knowledge. Why not a question about the *cause* of the greatness of London ?

Test C.1, 2, 3, refer to physical geography. One would expect to meet here with questions which enable the pupil to *find* perspective. This is hardly the case. In five minutes the pupils must call to mind a series of geographical phenomena, locate the point in question ; compare with others . . . and finally note down the results. This can only be

done if the facts have been memorised, which is impossible ; besides, Bradford does *not want* to test this.

What lots of factors are not wanted to determine the climate.

- (1) Situation in relation to (thermal) equator.
- (2) Height : the higher, the colder.
- (3) Situation on the windward or leeward side of a mountain (of influence on rainfall).
- (4) Situation in relation to sea, in which case the prevalent wind plays a part ; land winds bring extreme temperatures and drought.
- (5) For this construction of the wind, knowledge of the wind system on earth is necessary : equatorial depression, trade winds, etc.
- (6) Add to this the shifting of the wind system under influence of the variable solar declination, in consequence of which a place in lat. 34° N. (test C.3) is very difficult to locate for an intelligent pupil (unless he may use an isobaric map).
- (7) Sea-currents can be approximately constructed with the help of the wind system and the shape of the land continents ; they must be known as they influence the temperature ; cold sea-currents keep off the rain (S. Chile).
- (8) Situation in relation to adjoining expanses of land and water : monsoon-climate. Each pupil in the higher classes can *find* this climate, but he must have time to *think*.

In my opinion the very fact that there are so many factors to be considered—there are more than the above—point to a serious defect in Bradford's research ; as they often have a conflicting effect the " final mark " *may be the same in very different circumstances*. Besides—not even a meteorologist can give a mark. Are we justified, therefore, in concluding that geography does not require logical thinking ? A clever pupil is more likely to make a mess of this test in five minutes . . . because he is not " neat " enough to simply guess the result.

Yet a good test might have been set here, provided the pupil has a good atlas at his disposal, giving altitude—isobaric and isothermic maps.

Or : a theoretical landscape may be constructed on which various factors, such as mountains, sea-currents, etc., are marked. If then the question is asked what influence the factors have, a better insight into the ability of the pupil will be obtained than is the case now.

Conclusion :

- (1) To understand and apply geographical phenomena, logical thinking is undoubtedly required.
- (2) Teaching perspective is certainly an important aim of geography.

- (3) Part of Bradford's tests does not measure perspective, but memorised facts.
- (4) The other tests are arranged in such a way and allow so little time that the results are worthless.
- (5) By means of a collaboration of geographer and psychologist, it would be possible to arrange better tests for the secondary school, undoubtedly in physical geography.

H. EGGINK (Amsterdam).

(B.)

DR. EGGINK's criticisms arise from a difference of opinion about the place of memory and reasoning in school education. Thus conclusion 3 states "... does not measure perspective, but memorised facts." He and I are also at variance because he is valuing the tests as measures of ability, "a better insight into the ability of the pupil will be obtained," while I am proposing the tests as a means of searching for information that is fundamental to the development of an adequate perspective.

I have maintained that memorised information is the necessary basis for a true perspective. The learning process depends on the retention by the organism of past experience in the form of memories and skills. The first steps in education consist largely in acquiring memories and skills. Subsequent steps require the organizing of these memories into systems of thought, only some of which are logical in the narrower sense. In so far as geographical explanation is essentially a reference back to *graded* distributions, these graded distributions should be memorised—distributions of locations near and far : of temperatures high and low : of precipitations light and heavy.

To lump tests C.1, 2, 3, *together* and then to enumerate the factors influencing the *climate* of a locality is unjustifiable. Test C.1 refers to summer temperature only, and test C.2 to rainfall only. To know how much rain falls in a locality is of *first* importance, to be able to expose the relevant factors is of secondary importance. Conversation with the pupils tested elicited the information that they endeavoured to picture the distribution map when answering the question. A five minutes allowance was not felt by the pupils to be unduly short, because this method was adopted. The tests are not to be judged "worthless" on this account.

Conclusion 1 contains the phrase "to . . . apply geographical phenomena. . . ." Behind such an expression can be hidden that pernicious belief, so stimulating to the pseudo-scientific teacher, namely, that logical processes are reversible. It may be logically sound to induce

a definite general principle from definite particular instances, but it is illogical to deduce definite particulars from a general principle. One can explain or expose *some* of the relevant factors that may have led to the establishing or to the growth of Groningen or Flushing, but one cannot legitimately predict that wherever *those* exposed factors are present, another Groningen or Flushing will be found.

An orderly reference to distributions is the very essence of geographical exposition, and pupils should be trained in such reference, which is logical in the wider sense of that term. Practice in such reference does not lead to a true perspective unless those distributions gradually become more and more familiar, *i.e.*, unless they are memorised.

E. J. G. BRADFORD.

REMEMBERING : A STUDY IN EXPERIMENTAL AND SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY.

By F. C. BARTLETT, M.A., F.R.S. (Cambridge : at the University Press, 1932. Pp. vii+317. 16s.)

PROFESSOR BARTLETT'S volume is by no means to be regarded as just another monograph on memory. In more or less detail, it covers almost the whole of the cognitive side of mental life. Starting from memory as an activity midway up the scale, he shows that the processes of remembering are not sharply different from the lower processes of sense-perception or from the higher processes of constructive imagination and thinking. In fact, the theory of clear-cut mental levels comes to look almost as misleading as the doctrine of clear-cut mental faculties. Further, although he deals primarily with intellectual processes, Professor Bartlett is no mere intellectualist. Believing that psychology is a biological science, he adopts throughout a functional rather than a merely descriptive standpoint. His book is not a work on "memory" but on "remembering." He is not concerned to analyze or to catalogue what we recollect or what we perceive ; his interest centres rather upon the conditions, upon the wide variety of conditions, under which recollecting and perceiving actually take place. Thus he continually insists upon the influence of non-intellectual or affective factors—on the interplay of appetites, instincts, interests, and ideals.

This unifying outlook, whereby all the details of our mental life are viewed as part of one consistent interacting whole, forms the most remarkable and the most suggestive feature of Professor Bartlett's work. As a result, his volume is by far the most important contribution to psychology that has appeared in this country during recent years.

Professor Bartlett relates the history of his experimental work. One bright May afternoon in the year before the war, the Psychological Laboratory at Cambridge was formally opened. As part of the demonstrations, Dr. Bartlett was invited to show in a darkened room a number of pictures, geometrical shapes and optical illusions to a long queue of inquisitive visitors. The remarks and interpretations were so various and intriguing that he thereupon commenced a series of systematic experiments proceeding along similar lines. He abandoned the "exact

methods of nonsense-syllables," which were introduced by Ebbinghaus and which have dominated work on memory ever since ; and, adopting more natural and realistic material, tried to bring his study into closer relation with remembering in every-day life. This enables him to get away from the rather abstract and artificial conditions that so commonly obtain in the ordinary laboratory experiment, and brings his procedure nearer to that of the clinician.

He begins with experiments on perception. He shows his subjects, for a fraction of a second, various kinds of visible material. In the first experiments it consists of simple patterns and designs, made up perhaps of three or four lines only ; in the second, a set of progressive patterns—patterns in which, throughout a series of successive views, the subject sees, as it were, one and the same design being progressively built up. He then proceeds to more concrete representations. And finally ends with reproductions of well-known pictures.

What are the results ? With most observers (the trained psychologists seem often to form exceptions) the first reaction, on getting a glimpse of the material, is to treat whatever they see as a single unitary whole, with perhaps one or two features standing out in dominance. As a rule, the ordinary person does not take the picture or pattern item by item and methodically build up the whole ; the first thing to emerge is an " attitude," often a feeling of surprise, familiarity, or dislike. He has an overmastering tendency to jump to a general impression, and on the basis of this guesses at the probable detail. His construction seeks, as it were, to justify his general impression, to satisfy or fortify his general attitude. As a result, the interpretation may at times go wildly astray. For example, after seeing a slide of Yeames' picture of *Hubert and Little Arthur*, one observer declared it showed " a woman in a white apron with a child by her knee." Another said it was " a representation of Othello saying to Desdemona ' Come fly with me.' " A third suggested " It might very well be ' The Woman taken in Adultery ' " ; subsequently, however, he thought the slide depicted Charles I and Henrietta.

The non-psychological are apt to suppose that, of all our cognitive reactions, the process of perception is one of the most simple and immediate, as it certainly is one of the most fundamental ; yet these experiments reveal what modern psychology has long suspected, namely, that the process of perception is exceedingly complex. Indeed, perception appears at once to be the starting point of what are more commonly regarded as processes of memory.

Professor Bartlett's second set of researches deals with imaging. Here his experiments are based on the familiar device of looking at smudged ink blots, and seeing what can be made of them, much as one sometimes finds shapes in clouds or sees faces in the fire. The interpretations show a strong preoccupation with animals or human beings; but the most striking feature of all is their enormous variety. A blot which to one looks like a tortoise may seem to another to be two dead ducks and an ostrich; a third will declare that it is a dog worrying a table-cloth; and a fourth suggests a picture of Sohrab and Rustum from Arnold's well-known poem. The outcome is to throw into strong relief a process which Professor Bartlett points out occurs and recurs in every cognitive reaction—in perceiving, in imagining, in remembering, and in reasoning—namely, the effort after meaning.

The experiments on remembering itself are more extensive. In the first the subject is shown a series of picture postcards representing the face of a soldier or a sailor of varying rank: (it will be recalled that the experiments were started during the early days of the war when there was a widespread interest in the fighting services). After an interval, the subject describes the various cards in order, and answers questions about the details. At once it appears that accurate recall is the exception and not the rule. So long as psychologists worked primarily with nonsense-syllables, the very material employed tended to throw excessive stress on mere reproduction. Substitute material more akin to what we seek to remember in ordinary every-day life, and literal reproduction becomes as rare as it is unnecessary. The subject himself may be unaware of the changes and distortions. For example, the emergence of a memory-image may positively mislead the subject's recollection, while at the same time increasing his self-confidence: here, as in the case of actual perception, seeing, even with the mind's eye, appears to be believing. The main conclusion drawn is that "remembering appears to be far more an affair of construction than of reproduction."

In the second set of experiments, the subject is given a story or a drawing, and is subsequently required to reproduce it again and again at intervals of increasing length. The results are strongly suggestive of the way in which a rumour may arise on the basis of a simple fact, get gradually distorted, and then settle down in the shape of a fixed traditional legend. A further set of experiments employs the ingenious method of picture writing. The subjects learned to connect a series of hieroglyphs with the words they were supposed to represent; they were then to write from dictation a short story, inserting wherever they could, not words but the hieroglyphic signs. A number of instruc-

tive inferences are drawn, some of them quite unexpected. For example, a special determination to remember was often promptly followed by complete omission.

In the last set of experiments, a picture, a story, or an argument is reproduced not by one person but by a series. The reproduction of the first is handed on to the second; the reproduction of the second is passed on to the next; and so on progressively, until at length the final version, abridged, conventionalized, and variously transformed by a cumulative sum of minor modifications, emerges almost unrecognizable. The procedure will no doubt be familiar to many from the parlour game which is variously known as "Gossip" or "Russian Scandal." The process as a whole shows many similarities to the changes of popular stories as they pass from mouth to mouth, and a few striking differences. It is found that the cumulative recall of a very few people may result in the production of a totally new event or story. Chains of reasoning may entirely disappear. The final opinion may be exactly the reverse of the original statement from which it is derived.

The results of all these experiments are gathered together in a series of theoretical chapters. Professor Bartlett starts with a world of human beings confronted by an environment in which they can survive and succeed only so far as they can match its infinite diversity by an increasing variety of response and at the same time discover ways of escaping from the domination of what is actually present. Past experience is commonly said to operate by producing some change in the nervous system. Traces, after-effects, are somehow left upon the cortex of the brain. Professor Bartlett insists that this simple explanation is inadequate; for it is usually implied that the traces so left behind are inert, inactive, and individual, without any organization of their own. The re-excitement of brain-traces might suffice to explain the reproduction of nonsense words or of fixed mechanical habits. But in actual life what seems to operate and persist is rather some active, developing pattern, some form of arrangement, which is not rigid, self-contained, and unchanging, but is itself a living organization of past reactions and experiences. Borrowing a term from Sir Henry Head, Professor Bartlett speaks of these organized patterns as *schemata* or *schemes*.

In a simple creature, real or pre-supposed for text-book purposes, the fixity of habit tends to suggest that the past affects the present by forcing the creature to repeat old sequences, in a stereotyped chronological order which cannot readily be broken. For the higher and more complex organism, therefore, the problem is this: how to resolve the

original scheme into its elements, and so transcend the original order in which those elements occurred. This problem, according to Professor Bartlett's view, can be solved solely by the aid of consciousness. It is a problem which gives to consciousness its pre-eminent function. Through consciousness the organism is enabled "to turn round upon its own schemata and make them the objects of its reactions."

To overcome the difficulty, the method of images is first evolved. "Images are a device for picking bits out of schemes, for increasing the chance of variability in the re-construction of past stimuli and situations, for surmounting the chronology of presentations." Thus, in any process of recall, images (as the experiments reveal) are particularly liable to arise when any slight check occurs: the typical case for their occurrence is "the arousal of cross-streams of interest."

The device of images, however, possesses several deficiencies. Of these, two are singled out as especially important. The image, and in particular the visual image, "is apt to go farther in the direction of the individualization of situations than is biologically useful"; and the principles of the combination of images have their own peculiarities and "result in constructions which are relatively wild, jerky, and irregular, compared with the straightforward unwinding of a habit, or with the somewhat orderly march of thought." As Professor Bartlett rightly points out in passing, the familiar forms of association—the principles of contiguity, succession, and similarity, a logical classification mainly derived from the analysis of word-associations—are not sufficient to describe the peculiar modes in which images combine. These latter modes seem at bottom to be dependent on the special conditions that determine the combination, not of words or of ideas that are verbally expressed, but rather of interests and attitudes.

The defects of the image, therefore, are met by the later device of words. Words no doubt arise under social pressure. They are explicitly analytic—far more analytic than images. They can be used not only to describe particular features but also to indicate the qualitative and the relational factors in the general aspect. Hence to some extent they tend to compensate for the extreme particularity of the image; and thus, in Professor Bartlett's experiments, they often appear as an alternative form of recall. They are, in fact, the best of all human inventions for perfecting reaction at a distance, and are essential to all the higher processes of thought.

The second part of Professor Bartlett's book deals with remembering as a study of social psychology. Here he discusses the process of con-

ventionalization and Jung's notion of a collective unconsciousness ; and so adds to his views on individual memory an examination of the basis of social recall. This portion of the work embodies some first-hand observations upon social recall among the natives of Swaziland ; but it would be impossible in a single short review to do justice to the suggestive views put forward or to the penetrating things said by the way. It must be sufficient to add that here again Professor Bartlett has struck upon a field and a method of investigation which have hitherto been neglected by the psychologist, but which, as he clearly demonstrates, should yield results of theoretical value and possibly of great practical importance.

CYRIL BURT.

ERRATA IN ARTICLE ON
INTERESTS AND MOTIVES FOR STUDY AMONG ADULT
EVENING STUDENTS.

VOLUME III, PART 1.

- Page 15. Table for question 9—for 15% read 12%.
Page 15. Table for question 10—for 34% read 36%.
Page 15. Table for question 11—for 82% read 88%.
Page 16. Line 6, for 82% read 88%.

BOOK REVIEWS.

Education and the Social Order: By BERTRAND RUSSELL. (Allen and Unwin. 254 pp. 7s. 6d.)

One takes up a work by Bertrand Russell with a confidence that it will at least not be dull, and with this particular book again no disappointment of that kind occurs. The book is, as the publishers' cover states, brilliant, stimulating and controversial.

As the title indicates, the author deals chiefly with those aspects of education which are intimately associated with the point of view of social philosophy and social organization; though in the earlier chapters, such as that dealing with discipline in education, the treatment is more definitely psychological and has relation to method in the educative process; and these chapters are fundamental.

In these earlier chapters, Lord Russell on the whole expresses quite moderate views in reference to freedom in education. On the other hand, this earlier part of the book is sometimes open to the charge of dogmatism and unproved assumptions; a curious charge it may seem in reference to Bertrand Russell, the keen advocate of rationality and scientific approach.

Possibly, however, some readers will not be struck by this particular weakness. For it seems that if a man first wins a wide reputation as an authority in some branch of science, then, when he talks dogmatically upon education or other topics in which scientific demonstration is difficult, people are apt to accept his dogmatic statements as being as dependable as the strictly scientific investigations on which his reputation was based.

In this book it is in reference to psychological matters that the assertion of unproved dogmas are most evident; for example, that *all* training should have the co-operation of the child's will (p. 40). The assumption of a *general* capacity for concentration upon any matter in which one is not interested is another example of a supposition the evidence of which is not suggested. Other significant phrases are "unconditioned reflexes which have replaced instinct," and again "The affection given by adults should be such as to cause a feeling of safety, but not such as to limit freedom or to arouse a deep emotional response in the child" (p. 62). No reason is given to justify this statement that the affection of adults should not arouse a deep emotional response in the child.

To leave the psychological point at the moment, Russell asserts that certain instances "suffice to illustrate the fact that Church and State are implacable enemies of both intelligence and virtue" (p. 72). Such sweeping statements do not make Russell's arguments more convincing, at least to the more thoughtful reader; but of course to add "at times" would make the paragraph so much less stimulating.

In dealing with the relation between heredity and education, Lord Russell suggests that the views of some writers on heredity are coloured by their political views. This suggestion of unconscious influence could surely be turned upon the author himself, for his extreme scepticism as to the evidence for the hereditary transmission of intelligence might suggest that he himself is unwilling to believe that the poorest classes, are, on the average, less intelligent. He reveals no knowledge of recent work on this particular subject, and indeed the absence of all references to evidence of many assertions made in the text is a grave weakness of the book.

A further characteristic is the frequency with which the writer uses such phrases as "not infrequently the child," "the majority of children," etc., without giving again any statistical evidence for the assertion. One can only conclude that Lord Russell is basing these assertions upon his own necessarily limited experiences. On the whole, Russell's references to psychological points confirm the impression that I got from his earlier book *On Education*, namely, that he too readily jumps to psychological assumptions without familiarity with the evidence which is available. The best example of this is to be found in his earlier book, when he suggests that his own tendency to suicide during adolescence was due to

his solitary education. Now enquiries show that about forty per cent of university students report suicidal tendencies during adolescence, though of course only a negligible proportion of university students have had a solitary education.

I have dwelt somewhat disproportionately upon the earlier chapters of the book and psychological aspects, because they seem to me fundamental even to later portions of the book. In these latter chapters Lord Russell deals with such questions as patriotism in education, class feeling and competition in education, and education under communism. "Communism," he maintains, "offers a solution of the difficult problem of the family and sex-equality—a solution which we may dislike, but which does, at any rate, provide a possible issue. It gives children an education from which the anti-social idea of competition has been almost entirely eliminated."

In conclusion, to the reviewer the book appeals as one providing valuable suggestion and stimulation in thought on education rather than as a genuinely scientific exposition. One can only regret that Lord Russell, with his great mathematical and philosophical abilities and training, followed by his practical excursions into the work of teaching and the running of a school, should not have provided a more searching and reliable enquiry into the complex problems of education; and yet for many students of education, the dominant feeling as this book is put down will, I imagine, be one of gladness that a man like Bertrand Russell should come to the conclusion that education is the subject and the work to which it is best worth while devoting his remarkable gifts and opportunities; and some of the types and concepts of education against which he fights still exist, and still need fighting.

C.W.V.

Occupational Misfits: By SHEILA BEVINGTON. (Allen and Unwin. Pp. 97+Appendix and Index. 6s.)

This is described as a comparative study of North London Boys Employed and Unemployed. The investigation was carried out in Tottenham for certain very definite reasons. The investigator mentions that the Tottenham Bureau has not been so long in existence as some other London centres; without comparative statistics it is impossible to say how the Tottenham boys' case compares with others in London, but the author gives some results which indicate that the work of the Bureau is mostly uphill and that much has yet to be done by all the other agents ordinarily responsible for advising boys about the occupations they should seek on leaving the elementary schools.

It is remarkable how little the schools *appear* to contribute to the social service of acting as agents for placing boys in suitable occupations. This is hardly to be considered as the fault of the schools. It takes a long time to get an established connection between schools, offices, works, etc., and teachers must not butt in where their help is not asked for. The schools may be able to do more in time; that which is more serious is the apparent inability or disinclination of some parents to guide their sons towards suitable occupations on leaving school. Urgent problems are raised in this connection. While it is true that a number of boys get aid from their parents, the size of family seems to be associated directly with unemployment. Then there is the problem of aimlessness. Those who drift into unemployment are those whose school records are of low order and whose families are poor.

Here are but a few of the points arising in the course of this interesting investigation. In its conclusion Miss Bevington suggests some valuable remedial measures, among them being the advocacy of specially trained careers masters. It is an obvious course to improve the means for advising parents and extend the function of the school in regard to vocational choice; what is possible in a few instances ought to submit to expansion and wider application with the intention of adjusting an equilibrium which has been disturbed by modern labour conditions.

This research is of high social importance. The method is clear, and although some criticism may be made in the arbitrary award of marks for estimating averages (see p. 34), the matter is a small one. What is more important is that the conclusions are most valuable and worthy of serious attention, not only in Tottenham but generally throughout the country.

A.P.B.

The Proper Study of Mankind: By B. A. HOWARD. (Ginn and Co., Ltd. Pp. 256. 3s. 6d. net.)

This little book, by the Headmaster of the Addey and Stanhope School, New Cross, is an attempt to solve one of the most pressing problems of secondary school work—that of the Sixth Form. "The official curriculum," as Mr. Howard says, "does not correspond as closely as it should to the real needs of our pupils. It fits the examination system very nicely; that is what it was meant to do; it does not altogether fit the needs of boys and girls who have lives to live as well as examinations to pass." The difficulty of course lies in specialization; this cannot be avoided; but complete ignorance of what lies outside one's special subject can and must be avoided. Mr. Howard's remedy is to give his Sixth Form pupils a series of talks, followed by lengthy discussion, on "the broad facts of human life . . . which, while covering a wide range of topics, would relate those topics to each other in such a manner as to create some sense of the unity of knowledge; and which would have a definite bearing upon the attitude these pupils would adopt to the problems of citizenship confronting them when they leave school." There can be no question of the importance of such studies. We have bleated enough about the need for an "educated democracy" without always endeavouring to provide the sort of "education" that the phrase implies: the ordinary school subjects can easily fail to give it. Mr. Howard's book contains just the material and the outlook that are wanted. Its contents have been tried out, modified, and re-arranged before publication: the course has been proved to be workable. Naturally such a book will not suit other teachers in every detail; the author would be the last to expect that. But it is certainly suggestive; and it is to be hoped that it will set many teachers on the track of working out similar courses for themselves and their older pupils. But for those who wish to follow his course Mr. Howard has written a useful pamphlet of notes for teachers. From its nature, as forming a basis for discussion, the material of the book need not be reviewed; it is however interesting to read through; it contains lists of books for further reading; and it is well informed, though in passing one may question the importance given to the astronomical theories of Pythagoras. It should be of real value also in adult education, particularly for the work of educational settlements. Altogether it is a work which may have salutary and widespread effects on English education.

F.A.C.

The Social and Emotional Development of the Pre-school Child: By KATHERINE BARHAM BRIDGES. (Kegan Paul. Pp. 273. 12s. 6d.)

This is a valuable study of a pioneer type, constituting an attempt to set up a development-scale in reference to the social relationships of children, and in reference to their emotional development. The behaviour of young children from two to five years of age in the McGill University Nursery School was observed over a period of three years and a scale drawn up from the various items of behaviour and emotional reactions to a given situation. The author is very cautious in limiting the results of her observations to the particular conditions under which they occur. She points out, for example, that the scale is not necessarily applicable to children of the same age under conditions of a different school or of the home. It does, however, provide a means of comparing one child with another within the same school conditions.

An interesting theory of the development of emotion from a primitive general excitement is included. References to sex differences and the special characteristics of only children are unfortunately based on far too few examples to be of much value. For example, there were only ten "only children," and eleven boys and ten girls of the same average age.

The book is very clearly written and admirably illustrated with a large number of photographs. Altogether it constitutes a most useful contribution to the study of early child psychology.

C.W.V.

The Energies of Men, by WILLIAM McDUGALL. (Methuen. Pp. 395. 8s. 6d.)

In this new work, Professor McDougall gives what he calls a simplified condensation of his two large volumes "An Outline of Psychology" and "An Outline of Abnormal Psychology." This book, however, is something more than that, for it indicates a further stage in the development of McDougall's thought, or at least it reveals an adoption of a terminology which, in the opinion of the reviewer, removes some of the main difficulties in McDougall's earlier expositions and adapts his writings more both for study by the general reader as well as by the student. I refer chiefly to his abandonment of the term "instinct" in reference to many of the human dispositions and the adoption of the word "propensity."

Giving as it does within a relatively small compass, the gist of the rich body of thought which McDougall embodied in his two larger volumes, and marked by that clarity of style and interesting exposition which we have learned to expect in McDougall, this should prove a most valuable book for the student, particularly for beginners in psychology. The title of the book indicates itself certain limitations. McDougall, here as elsewhere, is much more interested in the fundamental motive forces within man than he is in details in reference to cognitive processes, such as memory, the learning process generally, images, association, and so forth.

The sub-title of the book—the Fundamentals of Dynamic Psychology—indicates its main trend, and after an approach to the preliminary study of the schools of psychology, McDougall proceeds to discuss the simpler forms of mental life, the behaviour of higher animals and so forth, and then applies the comparative method to the native endowment of man. The later chapters deal with feeling, emotion, sentiment and generally with that side of psychology to which McDougall has made such valuable contributions.

For the general student of psychology the work needs to be supplemented by one on experimental and general psychology dealing with thought and with cognitive aspects generally; but the book is most welcome as a general exposition of McDougall's views.

The Evidence of our Senses: By A. W. P. WOLTERS. (Methuen's Monographs on Philosophy and Psychology. Pp. 88. 2s. 6d.)

This is a little book giving an exceptionally clear description of what is understood by "Perception." The space at Mr. Wolters' disposal has been small, but he has balanced the treatment of his subject so nicely between the practical and theoretical aspects as to produce a statement equally useful to the thorough-going study of perception as for the use of those who want merely a simple explanation.

Mr. Wolters has avoided the defect of allowing his account to become academic, but he has kept the scientific treatment well in hand, and has brought it well up to date, as, for example, in his treatment of the opposed views of Spearman and the Gestalt School.

Two chapters of the book, viz., "The Eye Witness" and "Scientific Observation," appear to call for special commendation on account of the light they throw on some of the common problems of perception. A.P.B.

The Mind of the Child: By CHARLES BAUDOUIN, translated by EDEN and CEDAR PAUL. (London: George Allen and Unwin, Ltd. Pp. 282. 10s.)

This is a translation of "L'Ame Enfantine et la Psychanalyse," reviewed in this Journal, Volume II, Part 3, page 361, to which we would refer readers.

We may add that this volume is admirably produced and the names of the translators are sufficient indication of the value of the translation.

The Year Book of Education for 1933: Edited by LORD EUSTACE PERCY.
(Evan Bros., Ltd., 35s. Pp. 860).

This Year Book, first issued in 1932, is unique among year books, as regards its constitution. The second volume is not merely the bringing up to date of material previously given in the first volume, as is usual in year books, it is rather the extension and development of the material given and the problems raised in the first book. The volume for 1932 was more in the nature of a summary of facts of the existing educational system of the country. Some of the material there has been supplemented in this volume by the bringing of statistical reports up to date. The rest consists of essentially new material.

In the first place Lord Eustace himself contributes a valuable survey of the events in education in the United Kingdom during 1932. Here he takes his usual broad outlook and sees things with a remarkable sense of proportion.

The next section of the book gives statistics bringing information in the earlier volume up to date; then follows a section dealing with finance in education in the United Kingdom, not merely the finance of the year, but including a survey by the editor of ten years' expenditure in England and Wales.

Section III is an important part dealing with the structure and law of education in the United Kingdom, while the large section which follows deals with educational policy and method in relation to modern needs. A selected number of important present-day problems are dealt with here, such as education for industrial vocation, treated by Lord Eustace himself, and critical surveys of various aspects of education, including a discussion of the Dalton plan in this country. Space does not permit me to give an indication of the many varied topics dealt with in the rest of the book, but I may refer particularly to the treatment of universities by Sir Charles Grant Robertson, of Vocational Guidance by Dr. Macrea, and the substantial section dealing with education in the Dominions and Colonies.

Altogether this Year Book, if it be continued, as we presume it is to be continued, gives promise of becoming in itself almost a library of reference for students and practitioners of education. Apart from the pleasure that one feels at finding one of our most eminent younger statesmen taking such a keen interest in education continued even after a term of office as President of the Board of Education), one must congratulate him on the useful piece of work which he has accomplished in these two volumes.

C.W.V.

Headmaster Remembers: By GUY KENDALL. (Victor Gollanz, Ltd.
8s. 6d. 320 pp.)

To all interested in education and to lovers of a good autobiography this should be a delightful book. The Headmaster of University College School, Hampstead, has written in a leisurely, reflective way about his own education, and about his later active life as a teacher. Throughout the book there are also scattered freely sketches of interesting and influential people in the educational world. The descriptions of Eton under Warre, and of Magdalen College, Oxford, under Warren, are living pictures. Most valuable of all to a student of education is the study of the practical work of the public schools whether boarding or day, as seen by such a keen observer as Mr. Guy Kendall. It is fascinating to see the development of a broader and more humane attitude towards the education of boys in the mind of one educated on very conservative lines.

There are many points of interest for a historian of education; we get, for example, a delightful glimpse of the beginnings of a development of the "modern side" in the public schools. Of one of these modern forms he says, "Perhaps even more than most 'modern sides' of the time, the C form was regarded as a sort of 'sink,' an outer darkness which no self-respecting scholar would enter if he could help it" (p. 180).

Mr. Kendall has his own decided views, and yet he is never dogmatic; one always gets the impression of a mind awake to suggestions, responsive yet critical, very conscious of the complexities of educational problems. Altogether this is a most welcome volume.

C.W.V.

Art and Artistic Handicrafts: For the Infant School, 1 Vol.; for the Junior School, 1 Vol.; for the Senior School, 1 Vol (Book I); for the Senior School, 1 Vol. (Book II); by ARTHUR B. ALLEN, L.C.P. (Harrap.)

These handsome quarto volumes of from 200 to 300 pages each cover a wide field in dealing with all varieties of art and craftwork for children of different ages.

The foreword by Mr. Cyril Burt emphasizes the importance of the right kind of teaching in the arts and crafts for a complete education, and the author endeavours to show how this may be achieved. The work is planned on a sound psychological basis; he recognizes the difficulties for teacher and pupil, and gives wise guidance for both. The problem of the syllabus is well treated, suggestions for typical lessons are good, and there are illuminating chapters on the possibilities of correlation between art and craft and other subjects of the curriculum. The suggestions for constructional models in this connection are excellent, and the chapters on the theatre, tent-making and masks should find a welcome in many schools.

The books are generously and well illustrated throughout. It is not to be expected that any one writer can deal equally well with every one of a large variety of activities. In the case of many crafts, Mr. Allen has been content to indicate possibilities and create an interest, leaving the teacher to make use of the bibliography he wisely appends to each section. Needlework, cane basketry, pottery, are crafts which are thus briefly dealt with, and one feels that perhaps some of the less important and more "temporary" kinds of work might have been omitted in order to do better justice to some of the major crafts. Mr. Allen is less happy in his suggestions as to suitable design for leather work and for stencil decoration than in the other parts of the work.

These volumes can be recommended as written in the right spirit, brimful of hints and suggestions for the intelligent teacher, and likely to be a useful addition to the school library.

Latin for To-day: By M. D. GRAY and T. JENKINS, edited by C. McEVoy, M.A. (Ginn and Co., Ltd. Pp. 327. 3s. 6d.)

This book is the result of the application of serious thought to the special position of Latin to-day in competition with the many other subjects of the crowded curriculum.

It has in view especially pupils who are likely to do no Latin after reaching School Certificate stage, and it seeks to make the subject more attractive to them and more valuable. One way in which this is done is to emphasize throughout the inter-relation of Latin and English with a view not only to helping the Latin studies forward but to widening the English vocabulary and giving a clearer grasp of grammatical principles underlying English.

Another characteristic of the book is that an attempt is given, even at this elementary stage, to give the pupils some idea of Roman life and traditions. The illustrations are frequent and excellent and have a close bearing on the subject matter. Indeed the method employed in the book is to some extent a blend of the direct method with a more traditional method. The growing objection to the pressing of Latin upon large numbers of pupils who have little ability or interest for it would be appreciably lessened by the use of a book of this kind, and we commend it warmly to the notice of teachers interested in the method of teaching Latin.

Ancient Education and its Meaning to Us: By J. F. DOBSON, M.A. (Harrap, "Our Debt to Greece and Rome." Pp. 205. 5s.)

Gives a clear outline of practical means of instruction in Sparta, Athens, and Rome. It discusses the theoretical aspects of Education as set out by Plato, Xenophon, Aristotle, Isocrates and Plutarch, Cicero and Quintilian. There is a short chapter on the development of schools under the Roman Empire, and an

account of methods and curriculum in the Middle Ages makes a link with the concluding chapter which fulfils the purpose of the book's title.

This little work is a worthy addition to the series. It is not pedantic at all; it is stimulating and creates a definite atmosphere in which the persons who are mentioned, live, move and teach (either directly or indirectly), in a manner such as will appeal to many for whom history has so often been dull and uninteresting.

A.P.B.

FOREIGN JOURNALS.

Zeitschrift für Pädagogische Psychologie: February, 1933.

Else Liefmann deals with the intellectual and physical capability of "Repetenten" in the elementary school. Repetenten, repeaters, are those who fail to get promotion, and are left to repeat the course for another year. The observations refer to Freiburg, which has not got the same system of coaching-classes (Förderklassen) for the retarded that has been recommended from Mannheim. Hence, with some 122 children aged about ten, were 15 older children condemned to repeat the whole year's course. The children did not come from the very poorest quarter of the city, but the "repeaters" showed some physical handicaps. The authoress is rather emphatic about the dulling effect of this repetition year. These children tend to stupefy and lose all feeling for their situation; their failure lies on them as a dull pressure of incapacity, and limits beforehand every performance.

Otto Lipmann criticizes results already published about promotion statistics in Prussia. Gifted children may pass on to higher schools after three years or more, generally after four years, in the elementary schools. Ingenious diagrams display the later school course, for 1,000 "Vierjährige," compared with 1,000 "Dreijährige" children. Of the four-year group, some 220 in the 1,000 fail to make good and fall out by annual instalments of about 5 per cent. during the four years after promotion, whereas from the first creaming, the three-year group, the wastage is only 47 per 1,000, or about 1 per cent. per annum. The Dreijährige are, however, only some 2,000, as compared with some 45,000 Vierjährige. There is no proposal to promote all children at the end of the first three years.

Zeitschrift für Pädagogische Psychologie, 34 Jahrg, Nr. 3, March, 1933.

Includes an article on examples of character reports on scholars (Schülergutachten), by Helmut Aschenborn. The Rhineland school council has directed attention to the poverty of school reports, which are often valueless. Official exhortations produce little improvement, so long as reports are not turned to good account beyond occasional use in doubtful cases of matriculation pass. Some specimen character pictures are reproduced; the only aim in their composition has been fidelity to nature. They concern seven out of fifteen scholars in Oberprima (= Upper Sixth) of a real gymnasium. We give one report of special interest to English readers. It concerns B, a boarder. B's character reads:—

"The main features of his nature are an inheritance from his English mother. A steady quiet will, a sober unimaginative world of thought, a sure instinct for the attainable, a ready responsibility of social feeling, and finally, a child-like, frank, warm-hearted disposition mark his English nature. The morbid, uncontrolled father, an officer, through his narrowly conceived old Prussian conception of education, has driven his son to obstinate defence against him, and completely under the influence of the mother. This refractory independence prepared many school difficulties for the lad in the middle years of development, and can still to-day rear up against a compulsion which he does not understand. On the other hand, he is easily led by those in whom he has confidence. He seeks such confidence from adults, although he hides his need of support and help behind a self-confident advance. He deserves confidence by his unconditional trustworthiness and his delicate modest discretion; he rewards it with open-hearted communicativeness. . ."

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PRE-COLLEGE TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND OTHER FACTORS IN THE TEACHING SUCCESS OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS.

BY ARTHUR PINSENT.

(From the Department of Education, University College, Aberystwyth.)

PART II.

- I.—*Effect of pre-college experience on academic record.*
 - II.—*Selective effect of pre-college experience with respect to factors measured by intelligence test.*
 - III.—*Effect of pre-college experience on achievement in professional theory examinations.*
 - IV.—*Presence of sex differences in relation to professional training.*
 - V.—*Prediction of teaching success at the end of the professional year.*
 - VI.—*Summary of results and conclusions.*
- Appendices: including summary of some American enquiries.*

I.—HAS A PERIOD OF PRE-COLLEGE TEACHING EXPERIENCE AN ADVERSE INFLUENCE UPON ACADEMIC RECORD?

In Part I of this report it was found that uncertificated teacher experience obtained before entering college did show a significant connection with teaching grade in the professional year in the case of men students. The question now arises—is the improvement obtained at a disproportionate cost in terms of academic retardation. What effect has the break between secondary school and college upon the final academic status achieved? In this connection the U.A.* and the S.T.* experience are not quite comparable. In the first place the U.A. is teaching the whole time and has to do what study he can by his own effort and guidance. The S.T. usually spends one day a week in the secondary school, during which time he has an opportunity for some private reading and comes into contact with the masters with whom he may have worked during

* U.A. = Uncertificated Assistant.
S.T. = Student Teacher.



his school life. Secondly, the U.A. is responsible for the class he is teaching and his whole time is occupied by the work. More of his energy is absorbed therefore than is the case with the typical S.T. who helps the head, or some senior teacher, and who spends a good deal of time in observation and in routine occupations. It is likely therefore, that, other things being equal, the U.A. will have less time and energy to spare for his academic preparation.

It is difficult to get any adequate measure of academic achievement. For the purpose of this section the highest level achieved in the final degree examinations, and the time taken to arrive at this result, have been adopted as the most important characteristics. The final result in the degree examinations is the measure used to assess academic ability by the general public, including the appointing bodies, and it is this test which will be of the most importance for the young teacher in his attempts to obtain a permanent post. In order to get a rough numerical scale of academic values the following table of equivalents has been used :

<i>Academic result achieved.</i>	<i>Points allotted.</i>	
	<i>If obtained in 3 years.</i>	<i>If obtained in 4 or more years.</i>
Ist honours	80	80
II (a) honours	70	65
II (b) honours	60	55
III honours or three final courses.....	50	40
Two final courses	45	35
Partially complete degree scheme.....	25	
Short course students eliminated at end of first academic year.....	10	

The distribution shows a significant relation between teaching experience and academic record for both men and women students. The scatter diagrams indicate a skew tendency and the correlation ratio between these two factors was found to be :

$$r = .36 \pm .03 \text{ (men) ;}$$

$$r = .30 \pm .03 \text{ (women).}$$

That is, the period between secondary school and college studies affects the academic record adversely in this sample taken as a whole. Analysis of details reveals, however, that the effect is restricted within certain limits.

From Table I it appears that most of the short course students, i.e., students who fail to complete three academic courses (usually of the first or intermediate grade) in the first academic year, are included in the twelve months S.T. group, actually twelve out of sixteen such men, and sixteen out of twenty-four women. These students bring down the academic record of their group considerably, so a separate table has been made eliminating their results (Table II). For our purpose the most interesting sections of the table are those which include the good honours degrees and the academic failures. These have been abstracted in Table II.

TABLE I.

SHOWING PERCENTAGES OF ACADEMIC GRADES IN VARIOUS RANGES OF PRE-COLLEGE EXPERIENCE.

Pre-college Experience.	No. of Cases.	Academic Grade.											Mean Points.	% of I and Ia Hons.	% 40 pts. or below.
		80	70	65	60	55	50	45	40	35	25	10			
MEN :															
All U.A.'s	68	10	12	6	7	3	7	21	10	4	15	4	49	28	33
12 months U.A. ..	52	12	10	8	8	4	6	25	12	4	12	2	50.9	30	29
12 months S.T.	112	11	7	7	5	3	5	17	9	13	12	11	45.5	25	45
Nil	206	14	15	9	9	8	6	8	11	10	10	1	53.8	38	32
Total	398	12	12	8	8	6	6	13	10	10	11	4	50.7	32	35
WOMEN :															
All U.A.'s	17	—	12	18	—	—	6	12	18	6	18	12	42.7	30	54
12 months U.A. ..	13	—	15	8	—	—	8	15	15	8	23	8	41.9	23	54
12 months S.T. ..	94	5	9	—	11	1	9	19	6	14	10	17	41.5	14	47
Nil	244	8	19	5	14	6	10	11	10	11	4	2	53.5	32	27
Total	362	7	16	4	12	4	9	13	9	11	7	7	49.6	27	34

TABLE II.

SHOWING THE PERCENTAGES OF GOOD AND POOR ACADEMIC RECORDS IN CERTAIN RANGES OF PRE-COLLEGE EXPERIENCE AFTER THE SHORT COURSE STUDENTS HAVE BEEN ELIMINATED.

Pre-college experience.	No. of cases.	Academic Grade.							
		80	70	65	All hors.	40	35	25	All poor.
MEN :									
12 months U.A.	51	12	10	8	30	12	4	12	28
12 months S.T.	100	12	8	8	28	10	15	13	38
Nil	205	13	15	9	37	11	10	10	31
WOMEN :									
12 months U.A.	12	—	17	8	25	17	8	25	50
12 months S.T.	78	6	10	—	16	8	17	12	37
Nil	239	8	19	5	32	10	11	4	25

The twelve months U.A. group of men compare very favourably with the inexperienced group, producing slightly less proportion of good honours, more particularly IIa hors., in three years, but at the same time they show no significant difference in the proportion of failures. The twelve months S.T. group of men show the worst academic record apart from the I hors. grade. They have the least proportion of high honours men and the greatest proportion of failures amongst the men students. Even after the elimination of the short course students (see Table II) the twelve months S.T. group still show the greatest proportions of academically weak men.

The women show conspicuous differences as between the experienced and inexperienced groups. The U.A.'s produced no first class honours, and even after eliminating the short course people they show twice as great a proportion of academic failures as the inexperienced. The S.T.'s also produced half the proportion of good honours, and a higher proportion of failures. In comparison with this adverse effect it was found in Part I that the women showed no compensating advantages in increased teaching achievement as a result of the experience. It is probable that in both sexes the preference for teaching experience has selected a number of candidates of mediocre academic ability who were not likely to pass

the Higher Certificate examination and, therefore, sought the teaching experience as an avenue of admission to the Department. In the case of the women there seems to be a more direct adverse influence by the practical experience.*

So far as the men are concerned the experience seems not to have produced any serious adverse effect upon the abler students and for them a period of practical teaching of some twelve to eighteen months need not be feared upon academic grounds.† However, personal observation of the U.A.'s with more than two years service indicates that even if they are conscientious and hard-working, they find some difficulty in adjusting themselves to their new academic conditions.

II.—DO THE SCORES ON THE INTELLIGENCE TEST PAPERS INDICATE ANY SELECTIVE ACTION BY THE PRE-COLLEGE EXPERIENCE?

The intelligence tests were applied to students in the Training Department in their first and subsequent years. The tests consisted of batteries of standard types of questions suitable for adult subjects such as vocabulary tests, analogies, absurdities, reasoning, simple mathematical problems demanding no great technical mathematical ability, comprehension and completion tests. Any detailed analysis of the validity of the tests, or of their complex relation to academic ability and academic standing is not possible in this paper. It will be shown that in the aggregate, the scores on the test papers have tended to follow differences in academic results, where these may reasonably be supposed to indicate aggregate changes in ability.

All the individual scores on each test have been reduced to a standard scale with mean=100 and standard deviation=20. The numbers shown, therefore, represent deviations from a standard mean in terms of a given standard deviation. Table III shows the mean scores of students at the commencement of their first, second, etc., academic years.

* These results lend support to the finding of the Departmental Committee Report that many of the young teachers undergoing their practical teaching experience were seriously overworked—especially the girls (see p. 73).

† On general grounds it may be argued that for such students the break from the routine of the secondary school, providing opportunities for new experiences, for the application of knowledge gained in school to fresh problems, and for the exercise of a more real responsibility can be a distinct advantage. Too many of the Higher Certificate students come to the University with a schoolroom mentality and outlook and not much training in individual methods of work, or exercise of individual responsibility and initiative in studies. A year of responsible service away from the tutelage of subject teachers may encourage the mental maturity of many students and give them some opportunity of consolidating their intellectual gains.

TABLE III.

SHOWING THE MEAN SCORES OF STUDENTS AT THE BEGINNING OF THEIR FIRST AND SUBSEQUENT ACADEMIC YEARS.

	<i>Academic Year.</i>					
	1st.	2nd.	3rd.	4th.	5th.	6th and later.
No. of Students	340	370	252	292	174	22
Mean Score....	96.3±.72	98.6±.68	103.5±.79	106.7±.77	99.7±1.02	91.5±3.09
Differences	—	2.3±.64	4.9±.73	3.2±.71	-7.0±.61	-8.2±2.7

TABLE IV.

SHOWING MEAN SCORES ON A FIRST INTELLIGENCE TEST MADE BY STUDENTS AT THE BEGINNING OF THEIR FIRST AND SUBSEQUENT ACADEMIC YEARS.

	<i>Academic Year.</i>					
	1st.	2nd.	3rd.	4th.	5th.	6th and later.
No. of Students	340	40	27	72	82	13
Mean Score....	96.3±.72	96.6±2.05	103±2.12	103.9±1.75	99.6±1.56	87.6±4.32
Differences	—	—	6.4	—	-4.3	-12

Mean score on a first test of 26 students eliminated at the end of their first academic year = 81.6±2.54.

It appears that the mean scores increase by significant differences up to the fourth year and then rapidly decrease. A large proportion of the students sat the tests more than once. Some of the increase may be due to practice effects. To eliminate this the mean scores of students taking their *first* test at the beginning of their first and subsequent academic years were calculated (see Table IV). It is found that the means fluctuate in a similar way to those first obtained. The increase up to the fourth year may represent some practice effect derived from the habitual taking of academic tests and to increasing confidence and sang-froid which this practice usually induces. There is strong reason for supposing, however, that selection plays an important part in causing the differences. In the first place the short course students return a

very low average. These students are eliminated at the end of their first year from the academic courses, also students who take longer than usual to complete their degree schemes, or who have got into academic difficulties may withdraw from the department for a year in order to improve their academic standing. A proportion of the vacancies in the department at the end of each session is offered to fee-paying students already in college in their first, second, or subsequent academic years. There is strong competition for these places and admission is granted only after a personal interview and an enquiry into the candidate's college record and general suitability. There is a tendency, therefore, to improve the personnel of the department until the fourth year is reached. The test results show no correlation with age, the age range of the students being from 18 to 35 years and the mean scores of the oldest students are no greater than those of the youngest. The tests appear to measure some factors of native ability not connected with length of academic training and experience, but correlated on the whole with the effects of the academic courses and degree regulations in so far as these select factors included within general intellectual ability.

The mean scores on first intelligence tests for the various pre-college experience groups are shown in Table V.

TABLE V.

SHOWING THE MEAN SCORES ON INTELLIGENCE TESTS OF GROUPS OF MEN AND WOMEN STUDENTS WITH VARIOUS TYPES AND LENGTHS OF PRE-COLLEGE TEACHING EXPERIENCE.

<i>Type and Length of Experience.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Men.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Women.</i>
All U.A.'s	65	105.4 ± 1.69	17	99.9
24 months S.T.'s	11	106.3	6	105.3
12 months U.A.'s	49	104.9	13	103.6
12 months S.T.'s	109	94.9 ± 1.28	83	96.8
Nil	189	99.5 ± .94	212	97.4
Total Sample	374	99.3 ± .69	318	97.5

Amongst the men students the following differences are found :

All U.A.'s—Total sample = 6.1 ± 1.83

All U.A.'s—Inexperienced group..... = 5.9 ± 1.94

All U.A.'s—12 months S.T.'s = 10.9 ± 2.12

12 months S.T.'s—Total sample = -4.4 ± 1.45

12 months S.T.'s—Inexperienced group = -4.6 ± 1.59

The figures suggest that in whatever abilities the tests measure, the U.A. group of men is significantly better than the others and the S.T.'s probably inferior. No significant differences are shown by the different groups of women, the groups returning high scores being very small.

III.—WHAT RELATION IS SHOWN BETWEEN PRE-COLLEGE TEACHING EXPERIENCE AND THE SUCCESS ACHIEVED IN THE THEORY TESTS AT THE END OF THE PROFESSIONAL YEAR?

As we have already seen, one argument put forward by advocates of the pre-college experience is that it will increase the capacity of the average student for understanding and profiting by the "otherwise unrelated theory" of the professional courses. Why this rather sweeping assumption that the theory is always unrelated is not quite apparent. In some institutions, at least, very definite attempts are made by people who have been practising school teachers, to relate the theory, both within itself and to the realities of actual school conditions. However, an attempt has been made to get some light upon this position. The difficulty again is to get any adequate measure of appreciation of the theory. For our purposes it has been assumed that in the aggregate the students who understand and appreciate the theory of teaching to the highest degree will make the best scores on the theory papers.

This is, perhaps, not a very safe assumption but it is the best we can get. What relation then can be found between pre-college experience and the scores on the theory papers?

The papers were chosen in Theory of Education, Practice of Education and School Organization, and Special Methods of Teaching. The scores on each paper made by the students in each professional year were reduced to a standard score which permits of combining the results into a mean theory score. For the whole sample of students there is no appreciable relation between the theory scores so obtained and the pre-college experience. The correlation ratio for these factors was :

$r = .12 \pm .04$ (men) ;

$r = .09 \pm .04$ (women).

The salient features of the distributions are summarized in Table VI.

TABLE VI.

SHOWING THE PERCENTAGE OF VARIOUS TEACHING EXPERIENCE GROUPS
MAKING GIVEN SCORES IN MEAN OF THREE POOLED PROFESSIONAL THEORY
TESTS.

Teaching Experience.	Mean of Three Professional Tests.												Mean of Group.	
	115+				114-85				84-					
	Men.		Women.		Men.		Women.		Men.		Women.			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
All U.A.'s	10	18	6	40	38	69	9	60	7	13	—	—	101.5	108.8
12 months U.A.'s	4	10	5	42	32	78	7	58	5	13	—	—	99.3	110.1
12 months S.T.'s	15	17	13	18	55	61	52	73	20	22	6	8	98.7	103.1
Nil	28	17	38	18	105	62	146	69	37	22	26	12	97.8	102.0
Total Sample ..	53	16	57	19	208	64	209	70	65	20	33	11	98.7	102.2

It will be noticed that the men U.A. groups who were markedly superior in experience and in teaching capacity show very little if any significantly better results in theory than the other groups. The women students as a whole are better than the men, the inexperienced group of women returning a mean score as good as that of the most experienced and capable men's group. The best returns are made by the women U.A.'s, whose teaching achievement was not much, if any, better than the inexperienced students showed. It would seem, therefore, that considering the results as a whole, the argument based upon the value of pre-college experience for improving the understanding of the theory is not very strong in fact. At the same time if we refer again to the Table X, Part I, we see that there is a tendency for the high scorers in the theory papers to make the best average teaching achievement, but this is true for the less experienced men and the inexperienced as well as for the others, though not to the same extent. It would seem, therefore, that *there is some relation between teaching achievement and success in theory apart from the effects of previous experience.* It is likely that the school practice periods in the professional year have as much influence on the understanding of the theory as the student teacher preparation. Table XI, Part I, shows again that amongst the men students the effects of experience are most strongly marked in the group making the highest mean scores

on the combined theory papers, and it should be noted that the type of experience is more important than the length of it. Those in whom the pre-college experience produces the greatest effect seem also those who score most highly on the theory papers, and this group also scores most highly on the intelligence tests.

It is reasonable to suppose that as well as a direct connection between experience and theory scores, they are connected by a common relation to a native ability to profit by experience, and an interest in the work.

The success of a student in the theory papers, other things being equal, will depend to a high degree upon abilities more concerned with academic success in general than with professional work, such as memory, capacity to set out clearly on paper an answer to a question, logical and analytical skill, etc. The divorce between interest in and knowledge of the principles of education as distinct from the practical conduct of class work and skill in the art of teaching, and teaching success, is proverbial in the wide world outside the walls of the training institutions. In this sample of students it is clear that the factors entering into success in theory of education are more closely related to teaching grade, academic record, and in the case of the women students to what is measured by the intelligence tests than they are to teaching experience obtained before entering college. This is indicated by the following coefficients of correlation :

<i>Coefficient of correlation between average scores on theory papers and : .</i>	<i>Men.</i>	<i>Women.</i>
(1) Teaching experience.....	$\cdot 115 \pm \cdot 04$	$\cdot 09 \pm \cdot 04$
(2) Teaching grade	$\cdot 33 \pm \cdot 03$	$\cdot 37 \pm \cdot 03$
(3) Academic record	$\cdot 46 \pm \cdot 03$	$\cdot 27 \pm \cdot 04$
(4) Intelligence scores	$\cdot 14 \pm \cdot 04$	$\cdot 37 \pm \cdot 04$

The comparatively close relation between the theory scores and the academic record amongst the men is shown graphically in Fig. I. The curves show the relation between the two sets of factors when the teaching grade is kept constant. The mean score for each teaching grade was calculated. It will be noted that the academic record of the C+ group as well as their theory scores are both relatively high. Observation of

individuals in this group indicated the presence of a number of graduates with good honours degrees of the stodgy, thoroughly conscientious, persevering type, whose steady application to the job in hand is admirable but whose classroom manner while sound in an orthodox way is relieved by no admixture of liveliness, sense of humour, or originality. These are the people who may get pupils through a stereotyped examination syllabus in an efficient way but who may bore their victims to desperation in the process. For comparison the average length of time spent by each grade in pre-college teaching experience is given in Fig. I (in months of U.A. service or its equivalent). The graph shows clearly the preponderant influence of the factors in academic ability upon the theory scores. The case of the A grade is interesting. They have a very high relative pre-college experience, and from observation of the individual men concerned, a strongly developed interest in the work and enthusiasm as distinct from a conscientious acquiescence in it. From the A to the B+ group the academic record and with it the mean scores on the theory paper moves in a direction opposite to the length of experience. The latter, however, influences the mean scores on the practice paper and to a much greater extent the mean score on the special methods paper. Table VII shows that for the men *a pre-college experience of more than twelve months as uncertificated assistants* is necessary to make any significant impression on the theory scores and then the effect is most powerful in the special method work rather than in the more general theory.

TABLE VII.

SHOWING MEAN SCORES MADE BY GROUPS WITH VARIED TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN EACH OF THE PROFESSIONAL THEORY PAPERS. MEN STUDENTS.

<i>Pre-College Teaching Experience.</i>	<i>Mean Scores on Papers in</i>		
	<i>Theory.</i>	<i>Practice.</i>	<i>Special Methods.</i>
More than 12 months U.A.	103.2	102.5	108.9
3 to 12 months U.A.	96.9	95.9	101.9
3 to 12 months S.T.	96.4	97.4	100.6
Less than 3 months	98.3	96.9	96.5

FIG. I.

GRAPHS SHOWING THE MEAN SCORES ON INTELLIGENCE TESTS, PROFESSIONAL THEORY PAPERS, MEAN POINTS FOR ACADEMIC RECORD, AND MEAN LENGTH OF PRE-COLLEGE TEACHING EXPERIENCE CALCULATED IN UNITS OF U.A. SERVICE, MADE BY THE STUDENTS IN THE A, B+, B, ETC., GRADES OF TEACHING ACHIEVEMENT.

MEN STUDENTS.

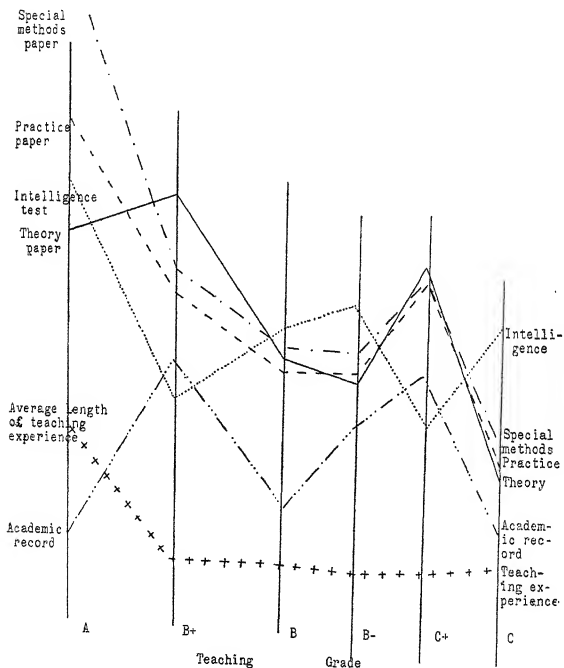
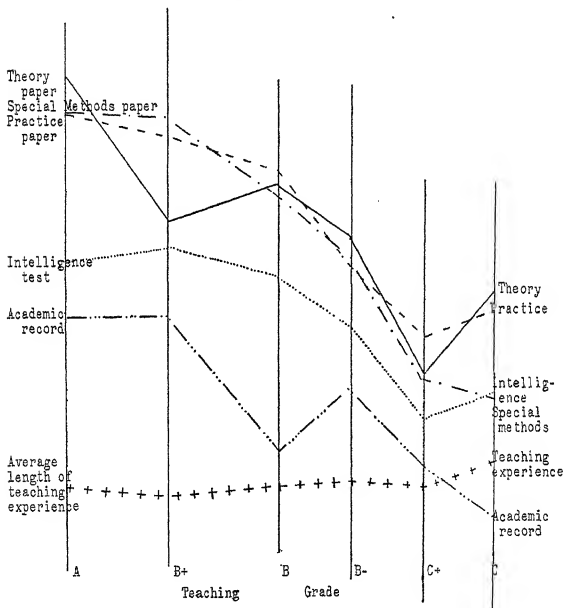


FIG. II.

GRAPHS SHOWING THE MEAN SCORES ON INTELLIGENCE TESTS, PROFESSIONAL THEORY PAPERS, MEAN POINTS FOR ACADEMIC RECORD, AND MEAN LENGTH OF PRE-COLLEGE TEACHING EXPERIENCE CALCULATED IN UNITS OF U.A. SERVICE MADE BY THE STUDENTS IN THE A, B+, B, ETC., GRADES OF TEACHING ACHIEVEMENT.

WOMEN STUDENTS.



The raw correlation between teaching experience and mean pooled theory scores is $.115 \pm .04$. Applying the formula for partial correlation between these two when both academic record and teaching grade are supposed constant, the coefficient is raised to $.254$. That is, after

eliminating the effects of academic ability and teaching success the pre-college experience tends very slightly to increase the theory scores. An attempt was made to illustrate this point by reference to actual numbers, but the groups involved were very small. However, considering three experience groups, having six and above U.A. months, 0·5 to 5·5 U.A. months, and nil, for the distribution as a whole there was a much stronger tendency for the mean theory scores to follow academic record and teaching grade than previous teaching experience. Among the women students, teaching grade, academic record, and intelligence scores are all more closely related to the mean theory scores than is the pre-college experience.

General observation of the actual students as well as consideration of the statistical measures indicates that the connection between teaching success and knowledge of the theory of education is due rather to interest in the work of teaching and to character traits like desire to succeed, and striving to attain some ideal of professional efficiency rather than to any direct connection between the two. Given these characteristics in a student then a deliberate attempt will be made to analyse mistakes, seek improvements, compare methods from both practical and psychological points of view and apply the general principles of method to a particular schoolroom problem. Without these interests and desires, no matter what may be the sheer intellectual ability of the student, both practical teaching and the studies of theory tend to be taken up as so much academic exercise to be got through, and no attempt is made to understand the relation between the theory and its practical applications. To teachers of this type, teaching is merely a process in which a given quantum of grammar, science, literature, vocabulary, or what not of academic material is unloaded upon a class of children who will probably be bored in any case, so they imagine. To this type of teacher the only conception of method or system in the teaching will be that indicated by the particular structure of the subject matter. These people go through a university diploma course because it is nowadays the thing to do, but the real inwardness of teaching principles never enters into their understanding. The raw correlation between teaching grade and mean theory scores is found to be ·33 for the men and ·37 for the women. Applying the formula for partial correlation these coefficients are :

- (a) When academic record is eliminated ·32 (men) ·30 (women).
- (b) When intelligence record is eliminated ·33 (men) ·34 (women).
- (c) When teaching experience is eliminated ·34 (men) ·37 (women).

The relation, therefore, in the sample as a whole is independent of the factors eliminated. This strengthens the hypothesis based on observation that the relation actually found is due to a third set of factors such as zeal and interest. In this case unless the pre-college experience is so conducted as to appeal to these factors of zeal and interest so as to include them in the same general situation with the knowledge of theory and the practical art of classroom management, the previous experience is not likely to have much bearing upon the theory in the minds of the young teachers.

IV.—SEX DIFFERENCES BETWEEN MEN AND WOMEN STUDENTS IN RELATION TO TEACHING SUCCESS.

The statistics already shown have made it clear that there are marked differences between the men and women students with respect to the problem of teaching success. This point is brought out by a comparison between the coefficients of correlation shown in Table VIII. Out of six pairs of factors, only two in the case of the men show any significant connection, namely teaching grade with average theory scores, and academic record with average theory scores. For the women five pairs out of six show a significant connection.

TABLE VIII.

SHOWING COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN PAIRS OF FACTORS
CALCULATED FOR MEN AND WOMEN STUDENTS SEPARATELY.

	<i>Men Students.</i>		
	<i>Academic Record.</i>	<i>Intelligence.</i>	<i>Average Theory Scores.</i>
Teaching grade	$\cdot 09 \pm \cdot 03$	$\cdot 03 \pm \cdot 04$	$\cdot 33 \pm \cdot 03$
Academic record	—	$\cdot 02 \pm \cdot 04$	$\cdot 46 \pm \cdot 03$
Intelligence	—	—	$\cdot 14 \pm \cdot 04$
	<i>Women Students.</i>		
	$\cdot 40 \pm \cdot 04$	$\cdot 17 \pm \cdot 04$	$\cdot 37 \pm \cdot 03$
Teaching grade	—	$\cdot 31 \pm \cdot 03$	$\cdot 27 \pm \cdot 04$
Academic record	—	—	$\cdot 37 \pm \cdot 04$
Intelligence			

The tendency for the various factors to vary together more in the women than the men is shown also by the curves in Figs. I and II. It is hoped that this sex difference with respect to the professional preparation of teachers may be analysed in a future investigation.

V.—WHAT FACTORS HAVE PREDICTIVE VALUE?

The selector who is trying to get the best applicants for admission to a training department wants to know what sort of professional result will be produced by any given candidate in four or more years time. A glance at the table of correlations shows that there is not a single factor dealt with in this analysis, which taken by itself could be used as any sort of a reliable guide to future teaching success or failure. In addition the men and women provide two problems, and criteria which might be useful in the one case would afford practically no guidance in the other. Pre-college teaching experience of at least one year duration of the uncertificated assistant type, in the absence of unfavourable reports on the candidate's zeal and general education, in the case of men; and academic record in the case of the women are the only factors in this sample of students which might be used as a possible guide to future success, and the predictive value of these is not high. All the evidence suggests that given a minimum of intelligence and academic ability, success in teaching is most strongly determined by qualities of personality, character, and temperament for which as yet there are no very adequate tests. There seems to be a limit beyond which the possession of a pleasant personality, force of character, sympathy and tact will not compensate for intellectual defects, but this limit seems to be well down in the intellectual scale, at least for elementary and probably a good deal of secondary school work. The importance of personality and character qualities is shown by an analysis of the short course and uncertificated assistant groups of men students. The records kept for departmental purposes were reviewed and the descriptions characteristic of each student were noted. The main traits of the short course students are given in Table IX, of the U.A.'s in Table X. The differences in personality and character traits are very marked as between the two groups.

TABLE IX.
SHOWING TEACHING GRADE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF SHORT COURSE
MEN STUDENTS.

	A	B+	B	B-C+	C	C-	D
Easy-going, complacent and self-satisfied, lazy	—	—	—	—	2	2	2
Nervous, worried, no confidence, lack of initiative and drive.....	—	—	1	—	2	1	—
Hardworking and conscientious, but academically poor	—	—	3	2	—	—	—
Badly adjusted, temperamentally difficult	—	—	1	—	—	—	—

TABLE X.
SHOWING TEACHING GRADE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF UNCERTIFICATED
ASSISTANT MEN STUDENTS.

	A	B+	B	B-C+	C	C-	D
Strong and attractive personality	6	9	27	9	1		
Enterprising, energetic, self-confident							
Enthusiastic, zealous							
Hardworking, conscientious, reliable							
Adaptable, resourceful							
Clear-minded, alert							
Sympathetic, tactful							
Nervous, no confidence	*1		†1	‡7	10		
Plodding, not adaptable							
Easy-going, lack of drive							
Aggressive, tactless, unsympathetic							
Not clear in thinking or exposition							
Temperamentally difficult							

The following uncertificated assistants appeared in both sections of the classification :

*One A.—Easy-going but very interesting personality and high natural teaching skill.

† One B.—Lacking in drive.

‡ Seven B— or C+ who had some of the qualities of the first section together with colourless personality, lack of confidence, and adaptability.

VI.—SUMMARY OF RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS.

- (a) Pre-college teaching experience is correlated with lower academic record in the whole sample analysed, but in detail the adverse effects are restricted to the student teacher and long service uncertificated teacher groups of men. Both twelve month U.A.'s and twelve month S.T.'s produce as high proportion of 1st class honours men as the inexperienced group, and the U.A.'s as a whole no greater proportion of failures. Apart from the selection of academically poorer candidates by the conditions of preference, particularly student teachers, a period of twelve to eighteen months experience before entering college does not appear to have much adverse effect upon the men students.
- The academic records of both U.A. and S.T. groups of women are distinctly worse than those of the inexperienced students, the U.A. women producing no 1st class honours, and twice as high a proportion of failures as the latter. It would appear from this that the period of experience has a directly harmful effect upon the women.
- (b) The uncertificated assistant group of men show significantly better results in the intelligence test than the other men's groups. It seems likely that this type of service has selected a better type of candidate for the profession.
- (c) In general, pre-college experience has produced very little effect upon success in the professional theory examinations. Teaching grade achieved, academic ability, and in the case of the women students intelligence as measured by the tests, are more closely related to success in theory than previous experience. The claim that practical experience before entering college is necessary for understanding educational theory does not seem strong, in fact, in the case of experience as it is organized at the present time.
- (d) There are marked sex differences in this sample of students with respect to professional preparation and the factors entering into teaching success.

APPENDIX I.

In view of the fact that the measures used in this analysis have not been specially prepared, but accumulated in the ordinary course of departmental routine, it is interesting to compare the results obtained with the reports of some American investigators using smaller samples of students but specially prepared measures. Generally the results show relations of the same order of magnitude.

G. T. SOMERS (Pedagogical Prognosis; Columbia Contributions to Education, No. 140, 1923) working with women students at a Normal College reports :

- (a) Very little relation between age and (i) college marks, (ii) school practice grades.
- (b) With Thurston's Cycle-omnibus and Trabue Language Completion Tests a correlation of $.48 \pm .04$ with school practice grades was found. These tests probably measure speed of working and supply of available information as well as intelligence as usually defined. After allowing for other factors the author concludes that intelligence shows a small positive correlation with teaching accomplishment.
- (c) Academic record and assessment of teaching efficiency during the first year of leaving college showed a correlation of .707. Since school practice teaching and first year professional teaching also correlated to the extent of .700, the author finds a connection between academic record and teaching success.
- (d) Coefficients of $.608 \pm .03$ between estimates of personality traits and school practice teaching, and $-.577 \pm .04$ between disciplinary failures in college and teaching were found.

This author concludes that no single measure is sufficiently highly correlated with teaching success to afford a good basis of prediction, a combination of judgments of personality traits, mental tests, and academic records being most satisfactory for this purpose.

L. L. MERIAM (Normal School Education and Efficiency in Teaching; Columbia Contributions to Education, No. 1, 1906) attempted to discover what relation appeared between academic records in the normal schools, professional subject matter test, and future teaching ability. The author found correlations between post-college teaching grade and :—

- (a) Psychology marks = .37.
- (b) Principles and practice of teaching = .28.
- (c) Method courses..... = .29.
- (d) Academic courses..... = .22.

The report suggests that neither differences in scholarship, nor score in professional subject-matter examinations, provided any significant index of teaching ability.

F. B. KNIGHT (Qualities related to success in teaching in 156 Elementary and High School Teachers in Massachusetts; Columbia Contributions to Education, No. 120, 1922) reports the following :

- (a) Age is an irrelevant factor within the age limits at which people usually teach.
- (b) Experience is not a factor of large significance in assuring teaching success.
- (c) Correlations between general teaching ability and scores in Thorndike Entrance Tests for College Freshmen were :
 $r = .73 \pm .10$ for elementary group ;
 $r = .45$ for the secondary group.
- (d) Correlation between Normal School success and general teaching ability = .33.

On the whole the author suggests, the general factor of interest in the work becomes the dominant factor in determining success in teaching.

C. W. BOARDMAN (Professional Tests of Teaching Efficiency in High School; Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1928) found the raw correlation between assessments of teaching grade and psychological test = $.332 \pm .095$; and between assessments of teaching grade and the combined scores of three tests namely, psychological test, professional information test, and procedure test = $.340 \pm .094$.

APPENDIX II.

TABLE OF CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS.

		Teaching Exper.	Academic Record.	Intelli- gence.	Theory Scores.	Practice Scores.	Method Scores.	Average Theory.
Teaching grade.	M.	$.26 \pm .03$	$.09 \pm .03$	$.03 \pm .04$	$.28 \pm .03$	$.27 \pm .03$	$.26 \pm .04$	$.33 \pm .03$
	W.	$.05 \pm .04$	$.40 \pm .03$	$.17 \pm .04$	$.26 \pm .04$	$.30 \pm .04$	$.35 \pm .03$	$.37 \pm .03$
Academic record	M.	$.36 \pm .03$	—	$.02 \pm .04$	$.36 \pm .03$	$.34 \pm .03$	$.35 \pm .03$	$.46 \pm .03$
	W.	$.30 \pm .03$	—	$.31 \pm .03$	$.18 \pm .04$	$.22 \pm .04$	$.26 \pm .04$	$.27 \pm .04$
Intelligence	M.	—	—	—	$.06 \pm .04$	$.07 \pm .04$	$.17 \pm .04$	$.14 \pm .04$
	W.	—	—	—	$.23 \pm .04$	$.29 \pm .04$	$.26 \pm .04$	$.37 \pm .04$
Theory scores..	M.	—	—	—	—	$.51 \pm .03$	$.36 \pm .03$	$.77 \pm .02$
	W.	—	—	—	—	$.50 \pm .03$	$.35 \pm .03$	$.77 \pm .02$
Practice scores..	M.	—	—	—	—	—	$.40 \pm .03$	$.80 \pm .01$
	W.	—	—	—	—	—	$.46 \pm .03$	$.80 \pm .01$
Methods scores.	M.	—	—	—	—	—	—	$.74 \pm .02$
	W.	—	—	—	—	—	—	$.73 \pm .02$
Teaching Experience	M.	—	—	—	—	—	—	$.115 \pm .04$
	W.	—	—	—	—	—	—	$.09 \pm .04$

M. = Men. W. = Women.

RÉSUMÉ.

L'EXPÉRIENCE PRATIQUE DANS L'ENSEIGNEMENT ANTÉRIEURE À L'ENTRÉE À L'UNIVERSITÉ ET D'AUTRES FACTEURS CONTRIBUANT AU SUCCÈS PROFESSIONNEL DES ÉTUDIANTS D'UNIVERSITÉ.

L'expérience pratique de l'enseignement, gagnée avant l'entrée à l'université, produisit des effets défavorables sur les résultats d'examen des étudiantes en question, qui montrèrent une proportion inférieure de bons examens et une proportion beaucoup plus élevée de chutes, que les étudiantes dépourvues d'expérience pratique. Chez les étudiants un stage de douze à dix-huit mois d'enseignement

pratique semblait produire peu d'effet défavorable sur leurs résultats d'examen. Il faut noter cependant, que la préférence accordée à l'expérience pratique, comme condition d'entrée à la Section Pédagogique, semblait opérer le choix de quelques hommes de valeur intellectuelle inférieure.

L'affirmation, qu'il faut avoir quelque expérience pratique avant la préparation professionnelle, pour pouvoir comprendre la théorie pédagogique, n'est pas soutenue par ce groupe d'étudiants. L'expérience antérieure, telle qu'elle a été organisée dans leur cas, a peu de rapport, ou n'en a point, avec le succès dans les examens de théorie professionnelle. Ce succès se rapporte plutôt à l'aptitude générale à l'enseignement, et à l'aptitude aux études universitaires, qu'à l'expérience antérieure.

On a découvert que la corrélation entre la note dans l'épreuve pratique et le succès dans l'épreuve théorique n'est pas influencée par le manque d'expérience.

Des différences marquées entre les sexes se manifestent en ce qui concerne la préparation professionnelle et le succès dans l'enseignement.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG.

LEHRERFAHRUNG VOR DEM STUDIUM AN EINER UNIVERSITÄT UND ANDERE FAKTOREN IM LEHRERFOLG VON UNIVERSITÄTSSTUDENTEN.

Praktische, vor dem Eintritt in die Universität erworbene Lehrerfahrung wirkte nachteilig auf die akademischen Resultate, die von den in Frage kommenden Studentinnen erzielt wurden; denn diese legten verhältnismässig weniger Examen mit Auszeichnung ab und wiesen im Verhältnis viel mehr Misserfolge auf als die unerfahrenen Studentinnen. Was die Studenten angeht, so schien-abgesehen von einer Tendenz, der praktischen Erfahrung in den Eintrittsbedingungen zur pädagogischen Abteilung den Vorzug zu geben, welche einige Leute von geringerer akademischen Qualität auszusuchen schien-eine 12-bis 18-monatige Lehrfähigkeit einen wenig bedenklichen Einfluss auf die akademischen Ergebnisse zu haben.

Die Behauptung, dass praktische Erfahrung vor der beruflichen Ausbildung nötig sei, um die Lehrtheorie zu verstehen, bestätigt sich nicht bei diesem Beispiel von Studenten. Die vorhergehende Lehrerfahrung, wie sie in ihrem Fall organisiert worden ist, hatte wenig, wenn irgendeinen Einfluss auf den Erfolg bei den Prüfungen für Berufstheorie. Derartige Erfolg hängt viel mehr mit einer allgemeinen Lehrfähigkeit, akademischer Fähigkeit zusammen, als mit früherer Erfahrung. Man hat herausgefunden, dass die Korrelation zwischen dem Rang eines Lehrers und dem Erfolg bei der theoretischen Prüfung durch die Ausschaltung früherer Erfahrung unbeeinflusst bleibt.

Stark betonte Unterschiede bei den Geschlechtern erschienen mit Bezug auf berufliche Vorbereitung und Lehrerfolg.

TEMPERAMENTAL DIFFERENCES IN THE BEHAVIOUR DISORDERS OF CHILDREN.*

BY EMANUEL MILLER.

- I.—*Introduction.*
- II.—*Source of material.*
- III.—*Method of enquiry.*
- IV.—*The children concerned.*
- V.—*Temperamental qualities selected for special study.*
- VI.—*General conclusions.*

I.—INTRODUCTION.

THE fact that we can speak of angles of approach to the study of difficult children implies an awareness that we are dealing with a complex whole which only the needs of scientific method can analyse into elements. The laboratory method of investigation makes necessary the study of particular functions, although the advantages of the method lie in the fixing of the conditions of experiment. In the assumed normal case, formal psychology presents us with more or less stereotyped categories which can be studied, but when one is confronted by the difficult child, we are initially discouraged by the number of variables that enter into the life of the child, and the varied circumstances which occasion a given peculiarity in conduct. Except in the newly born we are dealing as with a palimpsest with a series of processes written over and qualified by many others ; by reflexes strangely conditioned ; by physical defects which give rise to psychological compensations ; by instincts inhibited, re-directed and educated by social needs ; by application to external circumstances subject to intellectual poverty or retardation, and temperaments disguised by force of circumstances. In fact from the very earliest years we witness personality traits emerging which bring home to the observer the inextricable tangle of affective, cognitive, and conational processes.

In any attempt at correcting the behaviour disorders of children the physician-psychologist works empirically because the specific circumstances governing the emergence of the disorders seem to be all important, and to a large extent one is under an obligation to weigh up without reference to general principles the relative importance of factors of environmental as against personal factors such as inhibitions,

* As read before the Psychological Section of the British Association, September, 1932.

temperament and the operation of stimuli in the early life of the child which arouse emotional responses through the limitations placed upon instinctual trends. But willy-nilly one soon searches about for general principles which govern even specific responses. For example, one asks oneself to what extent does limited intelligence make for the emergence of behaviour disorders and neurosis. Can the cognitive life be sharply marked off from emotional attitude, or are the operations of complexes wholly responsible for the peculiarities of behaviour.

II.—SOURCE OF MATERIAL.

The children on whom this enquiry was based were referred to a Child Guidance Clinic: largely from school medical officers and head teachers, and probation officers working in the Juvenile Courts. The organization of a Child Guidance Clinic gives undoubtedly a unique opportunity for a many-sided investigation of problem children. In the first place, all children with gross physical disorders, including diseases of the nervous system, were eliminated and no children with statutory mental deficiency are treated. The physician in charge, however, examines the child physically mainly to ascertain whether no organic disease has remained undetected, and in addition, he makes a morphological examination on anthropometric lines for the purpose of classifying physical types made familiar to us by Kretchmer, Pende, MacAuliffe, Sigaud, and others. Every child submits to intelligence tests (Stanford Revision of the Binet-Simon scale) and a full range of Performance Tests. Reports from the schools give a teacher's estimate not only of the child's educational attainments but of his sociability, rapport with teachers and pupils, sullenness, truthfulness, impulsiveness, and general application to work. The social psychiatric worker in making an investigation of the environmental factors is also trained to assess in a qualitative way the child's behaviour and attitude in the home circle, and also obtains from the mother her estimate of the child's psychological make-up. Comparisons are always made between the child patient and other members of the family. In the playroom of the clinic one is able to observe the attitude of the child towards other children at play, and also his method of attack in constructing and drawing. This play observation is again observed when the child is alone with the physician. At case conferences at which physician, psychologist, social worker and class teacher are present, the various findings with regard to the above observations are discussed and related to the problem for which the child has been referred to the clinic.

The present enquiry into the temperamental endowment of problem children was the result of prolonged observation and testing of a group of patients. The attempt was a difficult one, perhaps a fruitless one in the present state of our knowledge, when the very concept of temperament is being bombarded by endocrinology on the one hand and psychoanalysis on the other.

III.—METHOD OF ENQUIRY.

The attempt was made only by deliberately formalizing the problem, that is, by defining as clearly as the material would allow, temperamental traits which could be filtered off from the turbulent stream of data—medical, heredity, intelligence and clinical history—i.e., the emotional unfolding of the neurosis or the behaviour disorder. The organization of a Child Guidance Clinic helped us because, as a team of social workers, psychologist and psychiatrist, with, in addition, school reports and playroom observations, we could see the child from a series of independent angles, yet the same child all the time. The study of the family allowed for an intimate picture of the child amongst others of the same stock, yet with distinguishing personality traits. We had parents' estimates of temperament and the views of brothers and sisters. The school teacher gave us a picture of the child's responses to school life both cognitive, affective—his social behaviour too. The psychiatric survey gave us the particular problem for which the child was referred, and the history of its development and the child's response to environmental forces. Above all we could enter into a fairly minute study of its physique and its dominant physiological responses—an important matter in marking off certain aspects of temperament. Lastly, and most important of all observations, there was the psychologist's report not merely upon the child's intelligence as measured by an Intelligence Quotient, but the account of an experienced observer on *the way in which a child attacked problems* in the Binet-Simon Tests and in Performance Tests. Broadly speaking, therefore, we had two large fields from which to categorize the temperamental differences of our subjects. One, a clinical field surveyed from a variety of aspects—social, psychiatric, scholastic, and play activities; two, an experimental field—the more or less fixed situation of the test investigation.

In the first field we had a very varied number of data, qualitative in character but capable of classification; and, secondly, a constant method of observation under specific circumstances which were the same for all the children seen—that is to say, the test situation was the same, the operator was the same.

Our next step was to choose processes which could be studied in both fields and to score them for the purpose of statistical arrangement.

IV.—THE CHILDREN CONCERNED.

The children who were subject to investigation were of both sexes and their ages ranged from six years to fifteen; the majority, however, fell between the ages of seven and ten and twelve and fifteen. Racially, the group of cases was of interest seeing that approximately half were of Jewish birth, the other half were English, Scottish and Welsh, and Irish with mixtures of both, and four cases were of mixed Jewish and Gentile stock. Socially the children came from artisan and labouring families with a sprinkling of shopkeepers and small master craftsmen.

The range of disorders for which the children were referred was a very wide one. These disorders varied from excessive shyness and lack of sociability, fears or phobias, night terrors, somnambulism, nocturnal and diurnal enuresis, ideas of reference and obsessions, hysterical disorders of walking, backwardness at school, a few cases of feeble-mindedness with nervous symptoms, temper tantrums, violent outbursts of rage, cruelty to other children, rebellion in school, minor sexual offences such as exhibitionism and curiosity, stealing, wandering and destruction of public property.

Roughly speaking the disorders could be sub-divided into: (1) psychoneuroses and personality disorders largely subjective in character, e.g., bed-wetting, excessive phantasy, hysterical vomiting, lassitude, shyness, locked-in disposition, etc.; and (2) objective disorders or behaviour disorders expressed as attacks upon or violent rejections of the external environment, e.g., temper tantrums, violence, excessive activity, and some forms of delinquency.

While many cases were referred for one symptom or behaviour disorder, in most of the cases two or more disorders of emotional control and external behaviour were discovered during the course of investigation. It was found, however, that in the younger subjects, that is, under ten years of age, the tendency was for a child to present either subjective or objective disorders in pure form, whereas in the older group—twelve to fifteen—the puberty group—there was a tendency for subjective and objective disorders to go together.

A common source of difficulty in handling these cases has always been a discrepancy between the family and the school estimate of a child's temperament and behaviour. Teachers are occasionally surprised when one or other of their favoured pupils is brought to the clinic by the parents, and *vice versa*, parents are annoyed when their children have

been found wanting by the teacher. The child who frustrates the teacher's purpose is not infrequently the over-favoured child of the home, and the child discontented in the home may find satisfaction in school life and sympathy and understanding from a school teacher. Consequently one would be gaining a false impression of temperamental equipment if one judged partially from one or other of these main reports. Thus in order to ascertain the basic type of reaction of a child, it was necessary to take a series of such cross sections and to reconstruct the child's life by obtaining a longitudinal section which would reveal processes of reaction formation. In this manner we were able to form a judgment of the weight of external circumstances in producing both subjective and objective signs, and so to arrive at an estimate of the specific factors in psycho-physical make-up.

Personality unfolding is the resultant of the child's inheritance manifest in physique and temperament colouring, and the vicissitudes of experience in the early years of life. In the first few years the child has a series of native endowments, instinctual and cognitive, which hold commerce with the external world that acts not only as food for mental growth, but as stimulus also. Were there no inborn peculiarities it would not be unreasonable to suppose that given a similar environment children would react in the same way. Their reflexes would be conditioned in a like manner, their instincts would be inhibited on the same plan, and given similar intellectual endowments their skill in understanding and manipulating the external world would be the same. To substantiate that this is not so was the motive of this enquiry. One was struck particularly in the study of a series of brothers who were referred for the same behaviour disorders. In a series of four pairs of brothers who were guilty of minor delinquencies and who carried out these delinquencies in collaboration, temperamental differences in the pairs was very striking indeed. It would seem as if the collaboration was made possible by the fact that the pairs were temperamentally the complement of one another. In one pair of brothers, "A" was a robust muscular type of physique with a vigorous engaging expression, of good intelligence, and who was responsible for the execution of the particular delinquency. He it was who did the stealing and the actual spending. The other brother, scarcely two years his senior, was less robust in physique, somewhat angular, and rather furtive in expression. He was less mobile and not so ready to respond without thinking of a possible path of escape. It was he who planned the delinquencies and recommended the way in which the stolen money should be spent on each occasion. The robust and active brother was always on the move, cheerful and not given to introspection. The other was

somewhat torpid in manner, less sociable and preferred reading and drawing pictures of a simple but imaginative type. Both these brothers have suffered the same family vicissitudes. The attitude of the parents towards them shows no favouritism, nor did the family life alter in the two years which represents the age interval between them. In other words, there is a distinct difference in temperamental endowments which makes each approach the world with its similar problems in different ways. Two other brothers presented the same type of difference. They stole together, wandered together and quarrelled with their parents. One is morose and given to intermittent sickness, and is obstinate and intermittently impulsive at home; the other is sociable, always grinning, and his opposition at home is characterized by an uncontrollable loquacity, yet he has a certain tenderness and tractability. Of two sisters in a family, which is disturbed by the sickness of the mother and by a father with an erratic temper and psychoneurosis, but an over supply of paternal affection, the one sister had had a considerable amount of subjective disorders with hysterical symptoms while the other is always openly quarrelling and obstructing the family life. This child—the younger it is true—is the last of the family and the most favoured, but her disorder is expressed in behaviour anomalies without any signs of subjective distress or hysterical manifestations. Physically here, too, the distinction between the sisters is a sharp one. The elder of the two is an angular girl with a pinched face and a sulky expression. The younger has a beautiful physique and holds herself with an air of haughty obstinacy.

One could go back a generation and consider these temperamental differences as existing between the child and parent. As frequently happens in the clinic service, the parents of difficult children are psychological problems also. How often does one hear the parent saying: "He is just like his father," or "He gets all this from his mother." One mother, in describing her own reactions as against the child's, had occasion to say that when she was a child she would become sick if she were opposed or obstructed, whereas her little boy has a violent outburst of rage instead. As stated above, where therapeutic measures alone are concerned, the problem is attacked by considering the various stimuli that have produced this or that response, and an attempt is made to modify the stimulus or conflict in the family situation, or by modifying the child's attitude towards such a situation. Scientifically it was felt desirable to class the children in accordance with their fundamental make-up in temperament colouring and intelligence. For such a method of grouping would enable us to deal with our subjects in accordance with their natural endowments.

V.—TEMPERAMENTAL QUALITIES SELECTED FOR SPECIAL STUDY.

The welter of facts and observations that come with each child does certainly sharpen one's clinical skill and unconsciously the physician adopts the requisite attitude towards the particular child. But for our enquiry it was necessary to formulate certain traits of temperament. The field in which this was rendered immediately possible was the field of mental testing for intelligence. Firstly, because the conditions of tests were standardized, and secondly, because it was found, particularly in the Performance Tests, that a child betrayed while absorbed in its operations some of its fundamental temperamental endowments. However standardized in nature the cognitive tasks in the test situation may be, the child's temperamental responses are by no means extinguished. The cognitive response of the child takes place in a setting of temperamental qualities. In collaboration with Doctor Fortes, who was responsible for the mental testing of the children, it was decided as a result of the survey of a number of examples to choose at the outset three temperament qualities, not unmingled however with cognitive elements, as they seemed to show forth during the period of testing. Some children, however, once their confidence was won, always approached the tests with a superabundance of movement and restlessness, talking spontaneously and moving about in a way not suggestive of erratic and false movement, but rather of overflow. They were always in a state of tone. Others, however, sat silently throughout the testing, almost toneless and with a minimum of movement. This allowed us to formulate a category of *Mobility* which should be scored with a plus, minus, or zero sign of average or indifferent. It was, however, found that certain children had the capacity to inhibit their responses until they were able to perceive the outcome of an action and thus ultimately to perceive its rightness. This process was called *Prudence*. This capacity for inhibition was regarded as something different from a mere intelligent approach to a problem. For in many cases, although the child was poorly inhibited, it still showed from the result of a series of tests that it had an intelligent comprehension of the way in which the situation should be met. The inhibited child goes "hell for leather" at a problem, correcting errors or missing them, sometimes trusting to chance to extricate it from an impasse.

The power of sustaining a behaviour trend until a satisfactory conclusion was reached without boredom or distraction was called *Persistence*. These three variables were considered in the light of the Intelligence Quotient and their relationship to one another was established by calculating the coefficient of mean square contingency. My colleague

kept his assessment of these three variables for each child and I endeavoured to discover these variables from a study of the child's reactions during clinical investigations, by observation in the playroom and from the social report of the family life and the early history of the child and from the reports from the school teachers.

It is obvious that this method of assessment, which was purely a tentative one, was deficient, firstly, because only a little over a hundred cases were considered, and the method of classification is a somewhat rough one. Howbeit, at least an attempt to obtain a statistical estimate of the relationship existing between temperamental traits, intelligence and types of behaviour disorders. My colleague's figures for his coefficients were as follows :

(1) Age and Mobility	·19
Age and Prudence	·34
Age and Persistence	·30
(2) Mobility and Prudence	·28
Mobility and Persistence	·22
Prudence and Persistence	·40
(3) Binet I.Q. and Mobility	·34
Binet I.Q. and Prudence	·29
Binet I.Q. and Persistence	·29

Taking one particular Performance Test—the “Porteous Maze,” in correlation with the three variables, it was found that its relationship with Mobility was ·25, with Prudence ·35 and with Persistence ·32. The relation of the Porteous Maze with the Intelligence Quotient was ·53.

When the clinical estimates were compared with the estimates made during the test situation, I found it difficult to discover from my own approach the degree of Prudence of the child, but we agreed in 80 per cent on the estimates of Mobility and in 70 per cent on Persistence.

In the ultimate correlations that were made as between Prudence and Impulsiveness, Doctor Fortes' estimate of Prudence was taken without blending with my own estimate, which I felt was unreliable when viewed in the light of the rigid conditions of tests from which he obtained his assessment of this trait. As regards all other traits which we had worked upon in our respective fields, such as Mobility and Persistence, the ultimate estimates which were used in the correlation were a blend of the Clinical and the Experimental.

On the clinical side—that is, the psychiatric anamnesis—the family story and the playroom observation—it was necessary to obtain the

data with regard to Persistence and Mobility from, firstly, teachers' and parents' reports. This consisted in a close account of the child's habit in the house and in school. The tasks and hobbies of everyday life were considered, the acumen with which they were carried out, the variability of interest and the frequency of boredom. Exuberance of energy, apart from specific symptoms, was considered, the directed character of activities was enquired into, and the child's demeanour during interviews with and without parents, when under direct observation and when allowed to move about unmolested and apparently not under observation. Practically all cases are encouraged to play freely in a special room with a variety of toys, games, constructional apparatus, sand, plasticine and clay. The child played alone or with others and one was able directly and from report to gain an insight into the child's mobility, his prudence in construction and invention of things which were self-determined and not directed in any way. His distractibility, fluctuating interest, and devotion to a self-imposed task were closely studied. In the playroom one is therefore able to observe prudence and persistence as they work themselves out spontaneously. Degree of rapport or isolation was observed, and the elementary expression of sensibility could be gauged. Some sit alone and puzzle things out, some sit alone bored or timorous, or obstinate and hostile. Others move from task to task finishing nothing and starting everything. Some work together harmoniously in little friendly groups, housing together behind a screen and imitating workmen passing bricks to one another. Impulsive members join erratically in group games, only to exhibit themselves in startling fashion for a moment, or merely to obstruct or even to cause discomfort and pain. Over long periods of varying circumstances and changing companionship the observer was in a position to score the subjects not only to Prudence, Persistence, and Mobility, but in addition for Impulsiveness, tendency to isolation or co-operation, and for Sociability. The scores were verified and corrected with reference back to observation in school and home.

This agreement on two temperamental categories, Mobility and Persistence, is a striking tribute to the value of Performance Tests as indications of temperamental equipment, not to speak of intelligence. It is a tribute also which I should like to take this opportunity of paying to a psychological investigator who does not merely assess the child's intelligence as an isolated faculty but sizes up the child as a whole—placing him or her in her temperamental setting ; in short, illustrates the way the cognition machine is set going by psycho-physical causes which extend beyond the bounds of the central nervous system. The freedom with which a child liberates energy in action is apparent : freedom from load

seems to be in sharp distinction from impulsiveness, which tended to express itself in the child's attitude to the external world of things and persons. Impulsiveness—the sudden sparks of energy in performing tasks, the wanton expression of emotions either over periods or on isolated occasions—seemed to occur in a variety of children and not always in those who were described as mobile. It occurred naturally enough most frequently amongst those who were referred for objective disorders such as delinquencies, temper tantrums, and sudden restlessness as in wandering and truancy. But it occurred not infrequently in those with purely subjective disorders and those with physical psychoneurotic symptoms such as bed-wetting, vomiting and intermittent non-organic debility.

To determine the distribution of Mobility, Impulse, and the relationship of the latter to objective and subjective disorders, the mean square category was calculated.

Impulse correlated in this wise with Mobility approximately .5. Of 113 cases twenty-six were highly mobile and very impulsive; twenty-four cases showed an average degree of both, and fifteen were of low mobility and low degree impulsiveness.

When Mobility was related to the subjective or objective manifestations of disorders, it was found that of one hundred and sixteen cases, twenty-six were both objective in the disorders and mobile in temperament and twenty-six were of low mobility and had exclusively subjective disorders. Of the moderately impulsive sixteen had objective disorders, and of the moderately impulsive also eighteen had purely subjective signs. The mean square contingency was .68.

Social rapport is a matter which receives serious consideration in one's dealings with difficult children, for it is noticeable in the microcosm of school and home in different ways and in the limited social world of the child. Temperament again plays a part and appears to determine the possibility of social contacts. Mobility or freedom from physiological and psychic load or inhibition must affect the child's power to establish contacts. Of 110 cases in which Sociability was related to Mobility, seventeen cases were both highly sociable and mobile of temperament, whereas thirty-six were of low mobility and definitely asocial, twenty-six cases were moderate in the social rapport and average in mobility. The correlation here was .7 approximately.

VI.—GENERAL CONCLUSIONS.

Enquiries have for some time past been made into the subject of temperamental tests with a view to establishing type distinctions.

Raymond B. Cattell, in a detailed enquiry,* comes to the tentative conclusion that there are established two factors "c" and "w" and their resultant pairs of type opposites which confirm in general terms the introvert, extrovert and antimony. The "c" type, however, he does not wish to identify too closely with introversion, and he is seeking for another term such as "Surgent-Desurgent" type of temperament. He adds, however, that "it would be necessary to discover the exact limits of the traits concerned in estimates and just how far the thing estimated expresses itself in test situations or precise records of behaviour." In my enquiry, an attempt has been made to deal with the subject, as far as children are concerned, from this point of view.

By the use of the mean square contingency coefficient, pairs of traits were correlated. Sociability with Movility correlated .7. Subjective or objective symptoms with Impulsiveness correlated .68. Subjective with objective symptoms correlated with Mobility .5. Mobility correlated with Impulsiveness .5. Impulsiveness with Persistence correlated .23, and Impulsiveness with Prudence .3.

If one studies the distribution of the figures in these series of correlations, what emerges as an indication, if not an assertion, is the existence of two fairly circumscribed reaction types: (1) the mobile—impulsive—sociable, frustrating rebellious type; and (2) the atonic—low impulsive, asocial psychoneurotic child. But further analysis shows that there is a subjective type, of low mobility, who is given to sudden impulsive outbursts. This type of child is not given to rebelliousness but to bad temper alternating with psychoneurotic reactions—relapsing into isolation and torpor, and its mental output gauged by intelligence tests is low. Mobility, as we noted above, correlated .34 with the I.Q. (Binet-Simon scale).

On the physiological and morphological plane, correlations are difficult in the present state of our knowledge of reliable tests in children at least of types of physiological function. Descriptively alone it was quite noticeable that the psychoneurotic of low mobility was of poor physique and poor stance. The scapulæ were frequently winged, the skin inelastic, the expression lacked lustre. The impulsive mobile and behaviour child was very frequently robust, had a defiant stance, a good torso and a healthy elastic skin. Careful measurement, however, on Kretschmer lines, using Wertheim's morphological index, did not bring out striking groups of longilinear or brachialinear forms. The enquiry does not claim to give anything more than indications of distribution of temperamental

* See article on "Temperament Tests."—*Brit. Jnl of Psych.*, Vol. 23, Part III.

types amongst the forms of disorders of children, but the indications are sufficient to show that the reaction types so clearly defined in the psychiatry of adults are already making their appearance when we study children who have not yet reached or have just entered the years of puberty.

SOCIABILITY.

MOBILITY.

	+	0	—	Totals.	
+	17	9	0	16	.75208 .12347
0	7	26	9	42	.04861 .24152 .02857
—	0	6	36	42	.02090 .6857
	24	41	45	110	1.90085

C = .7 approx.

SYMPTOMS.

SUBJECTIVE—OBJECTIVE.

IMPULSIVENESS.

	+	0	—	Totals.	
+	45	9	2	56	.5928 .0761 .0019
0	16	10	18	44	.0916 .1196 .0968
—	0	0	16	16	.4270
	61	19	36	116	2.0158

C = .68 approx.

SYMPTOMS.

SUBJECTIVE—OBJECTIVE.

MOBILITY.

	+	0	—	Totals.	
+	26	2	0	28	.4023 .0080
0	22	13	12	47	.1716 .2000 .0800
—	12	3	26	41	.0585 .0120 .4339
	60	18	38	116	1.3663

C = .5 approx.

MOBILITY.

IMPULSIVENESS.

	+	0	—	Totals.	
+	26	18	12	56	.389 .1309 .0647
0	5	24	13	42	.0192 .3323 .0006
—	0	0	15	15	.3750
	31	42	40	113	

C = .5 approx.

PERSISTENCE.

	+	0	—	Total.	
+	4	4	27	35	
0	1	7	4	12	
—	0	1	0	1	
	5	12	31	48	
IMPULSIVENESS.	+	$\frac{4^2}{35 \times 5}$ -091	$\frac{4^2}{35 \times 12}$ -038	$\frac{27^2}{35 \times 31}$ -672	$C = \frac{5 - 1}{s}$
	0	$\frac{1^2}{12 \times 5}$ -0166	$\frac{7^2}{12 \times 12}$ -3404	$\frac{4^2}{12 \times 31}$ -0431	$C = \frac{2 \cdot 2011 - 1}{2 \cdot 2011}$
	—	0	$\frac{1^2}{1 \times 12}$	0	$C = \frac{1 \cdot 2011}{2 \cdot 2011}$
					$C = .23$

PRUDENCE.

	+	0	—	Total.	
+	3	19	12	34	
0	2	13	1	16	
—	0	0	0	0	
	5	32	13	50	
IMPULSIVENESS.		$\frac{3^2}{34 \times 5}$ -053	$\frac{19^2}{34 \times 32}$ -331	$\frac{12^2}{34 \times 13}$ -328	$C = \frac{5 - 1}{5}$
		$\frac{2^2}{16 \times 5}$ -05	$\frac{13^2}{16 \times 32}$ -330	$\frac{1^2}{16 \times 13}$ -005	$= \frac{1 \cdot 097 - 1}{1 \cdot 097}$
		0	0	0	$= \frac{097}{1 \cdot 097}$
	1.0			1.097	$= > .3$

RÉSUMÉ.

LES DIFFÉRENCES DE TEMPÉRAMENT DANS LES DÉSORDRS DE COMPORTEMENT CHEZ LES ENFANTS.

On fit une enquête sur les traits de tempérament se cachant derrière les désordres de comportement et psychonévrosiques chez une centaine d'enfants. On fit les observations dans une Clinique d'Enfants organisée de sorte que le problème présenté put être étudié à la lumière de l'intelligence de l'enfant, de son milieu social, de son comportement et ses succès à l'école et de ses réactions pendant les jeux, par groupes et solitaires. Trois traits principaux furent examinés indépendamment par le médecin et le psychologue qui appliqua des tests de langage et de dextérité. Pour ce qui est de la mobilité et la persistance ces jugements indépendants s'accordent de très près, mais, pour ce qui est de la prudence, seuls les jugements du psychologue peuvent être considérés comme valables. Au moyen du coefficient carré moyen de contingence on établit la corrélation entre des paires de traits. La Sociabilité avec la Mobilité, corrélation, .7. Les symptômes subjectifs ou objectifs avec l'Impétuosité, .68. Les symptômes subjectifs et objectifs avec la Mobilité, .5. La Mobilité avec l'Impétuosité, .5. L'Impétuosité avec la Persistance, .23, et l'Impétuosité avec la Prudence, .3.

Ces corrélations qualitatives indiquent, si ce n'est qu'à titre d'essai, que le groupe d'enfants observés se divise en deux sections assez distinctes.

(1) Le type Mobile-Impétueux - Sociable-Frustateur-Révolté qui montre des désordres de comportement, et

(2) Le type Atonique ou asthénique peu Impétueux-Insociable ayant une tendance à des psychonévroses.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG.

TEMPERAMENTSUNTERSCHIEDE BEI BETRAGENSSTÖRUNGEN VON KINDERN.

Man hat etwa 100 Kinder auf die Temperamenteigenschaften hin untersucht, die hinter den verschiedenen Betragens- und psychoneurotischen Störungen stehen. Man machte Beobachtungen in einer Klinik und richtete es so ein, dass das dargestellte Problem im Lichte der Intelligenz des Kindes, seines sozialen Milieus, seines Betragens und seiner Leistungen in der Schule und seiner Reaktionen während des Gruppen- und Einzelspiels studiert werden konnte. Drei Haupteigenschaften wurden unabhängig von einander von dem Arzt und von dem Psychologen betrachtet, welche Wort- und Leistungstests ausführten. Was die Beweglichkeit und die Ausdauer anbetrifft, stimmten diese von einander unabhängigen Schätzungen sehr genau überein; aber was die Klugheit angeht, so wurden die Schätzungen des Psychologen allein als zuverlässig angesehen. Unter Gebrauch des Mittelwerts vom Quadrat des Kontingenzkoeffizienten wurden je zwei der Eigenschaften korreliert. Geselligkeit korrelierte mit Beweglichkeit, .7. Subjektive oder objektive Symptome korrelierten mit Erregbarkeit, .68. Subjektive mit objektiven Symptomen korrelierten mit Beweglichkeit, .5. Beweglichkeit korrelierte mit Erregbarkeit, .5. Erregbarkeit mit Ausdauer korrelierte, .23, und Erregbarkeit mit Klugheit, .3.

Diese qualitativen Korrelationen weisen darauf hin, wenn auch nur versuchsweise, dass die untersuchte Kindergruppe in zwei ziemlich verschiedene Gruppen zerfiel.

(1) Der bewegliche-erregbare-gesellige-zerstörerische-rebellische Typus wies Betragensstörungen auf, und

(2) Der schlaffe oder schwächliche, wenig erregbare, asoziale Typus zeigte sich zur Psychoneurose geneigt.

A STUDY OF THE COMPARATIVE INTELLIGENCE OF CHILDREN IN CERTAIN BILINGUAL AND MONOGLOT SCHOOLS IN SOUTH WALES.

BY ETHEL M. BARKE

(*From the Education Department, University College, Cardiff*).

- I.—*Object and origin of the investigation.*
- II.—*The Tests : non-language and verbal mental tests.*
- III.—*The Subjects : bilingual and monoglot schools.*
- IV.—*Results :*
 - (a) *Comparison of results in the bilingual and monoglot schools.*
 - (b) *Correlations of the tests with teachers' rankings for intelligence, with each other, and with Secondary Schools' Entrance Examination results.*
 - (c) *Comparison with results of other investigations.*
- V.—*Conclusions.*

I.—OBJECT AND ORIGIN.

THE object of this investigation was to compare the general intelligence of pupils of certain bilingual and monoglot schools in South Wales by means of non-verbal tests.

There are many degrees of bilingualism. In this paper the term "bilingual" is applied to schools in which the mother tongue is used almost exclusively with the younger children, but a second language becomes progressively the chief medium of instruction in the upper classes.

The conclusion drawn by Saer* from his extensive investigation was that the mentality of the bilingual children in rural districts of Wales was distinctly inferior to that of the monoglot English-speaking children in the same area, and he suggested that this inferiority was due to the confusion arising in the child's mind from the premature attempt to become bilingual. As against this, however, he found practically no difference in the intelligence of bilingual and monoglot children in urban schools ; this he considered was due to the fact that the children in the towns (unlike the rural children) used English in their play before going to school as well as during school years, and therefore escaped to a great

* Saer, D. J., *An Inquiry into the effect of Bilingualism upon the Intelligence of Young Children*.—*J. of Exp. Ped.*, Vol. VI (1922), pp. 232-240 and pp. 266-274 ; also Saer, D. J., *The Effect of Bilingualism on Intelligence*.—*Br. J. of Ed. Psych.*, Vol. XIV (1923), pp. 25-38.

extent the emotional disturbance experienced by the rural children when they found they could not meet the demands of school-life with their mother-tongue alone. At the same time Saer detected evidences of mental confusion in the bilingual urban children when he gave tests of dextrality and rhythm, which seemed to indicate that they, too, had suffered a mental disturbance from the too early use of a second language.

In order to ascertain whether the effects of early bilingualism persisted, Saer gave group tests of intelligence to a number of university students* and found in their case also that rural bilingualists were inferior to rural monoglots.

Saer's findings were to some extent confirmed by Mr. (now Professor) Frank Smith,† though he attacked the problem from a different angle.

It must be noted, however, that, with the exception of the dextrality and rhythm tests, all the tests employed by Saer and Smith involved the use of language. It is true that Saer's examinations were conducted in Welsh or English according to the mother-tongue of the child, but even so the question arises whether the inferiority shown by the bilingual children in rural areas may not have been due to linguistic difficulties.

That early bilingualism need not in itself involve a lowering of intelligence is suggested by the results of an investigation of the comparative intelligence of Jewish and non-Jewish children,‡ though here the racial factor must be taken into account. Although linguistic ability may afford an indication of general intelligence, in estimating the intelligence of bilingual children, whose progress in the mother-tongue may have been hindered by the early introduction of a second language, it seems advisable to apply mental tests of a non-verbal character.

II.—THE TESTS.

The tests used in this investigation were of both the non-verbal and verbal types, viz. :

- (1) *Non-Language Mental Tests*, by R. Pintner, Ph.D.
- (2) *Northumberland Standardised Tests : General Intelligence*, 1925 Series, by Cyril Burt, D.Sc.

* Saer, D. J., op. cit., *Br. J. of Ed. Psych.*, Vol. XIV (1923), pp. 25-38.

† Smith, Frank, *Bilingualism and Mental Development*.—*Br. J. of Psych.*, Vol. XIII (1923), pp. 271-282.

‡ Davies, M., and Hughes, A. G., *An Investigation into the Comparative Intelligence and Attainments of Jewish and Non-Jewish School children*.—*Br. J. of Psych.*, Vol. XVIII (1927), pp. 134-147.

The Northumberland Tests being well known in this country need no description ; they comprise nine tests entitled respectively, Understanding Instructions, Opposites, Similarities, Mixed Sentences, Completing Sentences, Selecting Reasons, Simple Reasoning, Following an Argument, and Absurdities.

The time required for giving these tests is sixty minutes. This was the Group Test of Intelligence employed by Davies and Hughes in their investigation of the comparative intelligence of Jewish and Non-Jewish school-children, to which reference has already been made.

It was used in this investigation chiefly that it might serve as a check on the non-Language Test, and is not to be regarded as a suitable measure of Intelligence for the children in the bilingual schools.

Pintner's non-Language Mental Test has been used frequently in U.S.A. for comparing the intelligence of American children and those of foreign parentage, and for testing deaf children. Evidence of its reliability and validity has been adduced by Professor Pintner.* The test is not so well known in this country, though it was used by the National Institute of Industrial Psychology† in one of their experiments in vocational guidance.

The material throughout is non-verbal and calls for no verbal response, moreover the instructions are given entirely by signs and demonstrations on the blackboard. The material includes mutilated pictures, pictures with missing features, two digit-symbol tests (one easy, the other more difficult), and tests dealing with form relationships. The time required for giving this group test is thirty to thirty-five minutes. In every case before the Test was begun a brief statement was made to the children, explaining why no words were to be used, and indicating the signals for starting and stopping together with one or two other matters of general procedure. This statement had been drawn up beforehand in English and Welsh, and in the bilingual schools it was given in both languages.

A third test (Group Tests—series 34 of the National Institute of Industrial Psychology) was used with a group of boys and a group of girls who took the Pintner and Northumberland Tests a second time after the interval of a year. In this case two of the component tests are of the pictorial type, while the other seven involve the use of language ; thus

* Pintner, R., *Results obtained with the Non-Language Group Test*.—J. of Ed. Psych., Vol. XV (1924), pp. 473-483.

† Industrial Fatigue Research Board Report, No. 33, *A Study in Vocational Guidance*.

the test, as a whole, contains features of both the Pintner and Northumberland Tests, though inclining more to the latter type.

As regards the general question, whether perceptual mental tests measure the same general intelligence as verbal tests, opinions differ. If Spearman's* theory of "g" is accepted, then the reply is in the affirmative, and Performance Tests (suitably constructed) can be used as substitutes for verbal intelligence tests, as appeared in Davey's† investigation, in which the pictorial tests used were the exact counterparts of the verbal tests. On the other hand, there is Thorndike's‡ view "that the ability measured by the verbal tests is not the same as the ability measured by non-verbal tests" (he declares, however, that "the various intelligences" will inter-correlate), and Pintner§ says of his non-language test that it "may be considered as testing a less abstract type of intelligence than is tested by the usual verbal group intelligence test."

It should be noted that many well-known Performance Tests are reported by various investigators as not altogether suitable for measuring the intelligence of the older children, but this objection appears not to apply to Pintner's non-Language Test, since in it, generally speaking, older children score progressively higher than younger children.

III.—SUBJECTS.

For this investigation three mixed bilingual schools|| were chosen, which were situated not far apart in a mining district of South Wales where Welsh is the dominant language. The social environment of the pupils was of a similar nature in the three schools. The investigator noted that the children commonly spoke Welsh at play, and Welsh was the language usually heard in the shops. In answer to a questionnaire, 86·2 per cent of the children** replied that they spoke Welsh at home.

In this area all the instruction in the infants' departments is given in Welsh except when the children are taught English nursery rhymes; the time allotted to these varies from ten minutes a day in one school to ten minutes a week in another. In Standard I, that is at about the age of seven years, they begin to learn English systematically. In one of the

* Spearman, C., *The Abilities of Man*.

† Davey, C. M., *A Comparison of Group Verbal and Pictorial Tests of Intelligence*.—*Br. J. of Psych.*, Vol. XVII (1926), pp. 27-48.

‡ Thorndike, E. L., *Intelligence and its Measurements: A Symposium*, I.—*J. of Ed. Psych.*, Vol. XII (1921), p. 126.

§ Pintner, R., *op. cit.*, p. 475.

|| Schools A, B, and C in the tables of results.

** Excluding a few who failed to reply.

schools, for example, it was stated that the children read English for forty-five minutes a day, and had in addition English conversation or recitation for fifteen minutes. From Standard II English is the medium of instruction, but explanations are often given in Welsh, especially in the lower standards, and the teachers are bilingual.

The children tested were all those present in each of the three schools on the day of the examination whose ages were over ten years and under fourteen years. They numbered three hundred and ninety-five.

To compare with these, two schools* (for boys and girls respectively) were selected in a mining district of the same county where English is the dominant language. In these schools there is a compulsory Welsh lesson every day, but English is the medium of instruction in the other lessons. The language commonly heard in the playgrounds and shops is English. In answer to the question: "Do you speak Welsh at home?" only 3·4 per cent of the boys and 3·9 per cent of the girls† replied in the affirmative. The number tested was three hundred and two, all of the age range of ten to fourteen.

It was thought that from the point of view of the fathers' occupations these two groups of schools would compare very fairly, but it seems probable that the home environment of the pupils in the three bilingual schools was rather superior to that of the pupils in the monoglot schools; the investigator was informed that in the bilingual area, though wages were low, many of the miners owned the houses that they occupied, whereas in the other mining area selected it was stated that families moved frequently and that parents did not show much interest in their children's education.

IV.—RESULTS.

Range of I.Q.'s in the bilingual and monoglot schools.

The distribution of I.Q.'s for the verbal and non-verbal tests in the bilingual schools (354 pupils‡) and the monoglot schools (302 pupils) is shown in Figures I and II.

All the curves are skewed to the left, which was to be expected owing to the removal of the brighter children to the secondary schools before they reach the higher age groups.

The monoglot schools are seen to be clearly superior to the bilingual on the verbal test, but on the non-verbal test a slight advantage rests with the bilingual schools.

* School D (boys) and School D (girls).

† A few failed to reply.

‡ Owing to an unfortunate accident, figures for School C are not available in the 12 and 13-year groups.

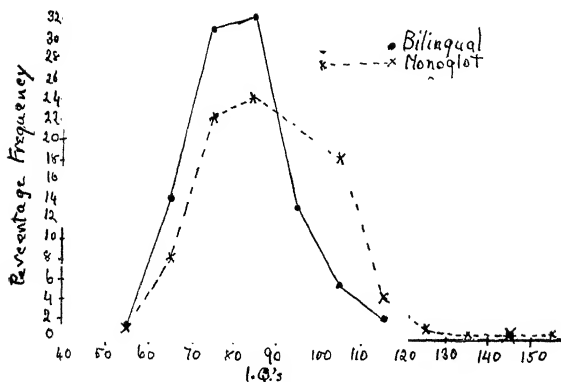


FIG. I.
NORTHUMBERLAND TEST. DISTRIBUTION OF I.Q.'s.
(VERBAL.)

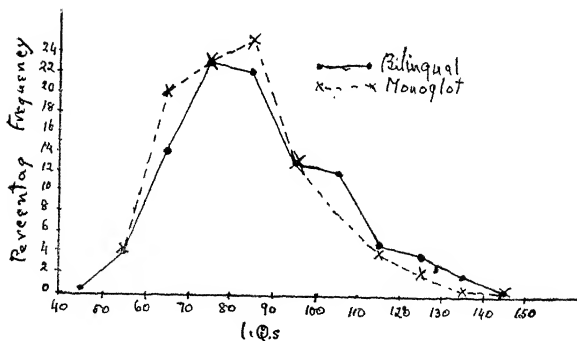


FIG. II.
PINTNER TEST. DISTRIBUTION OF I.Q.'s.
(NON-VERBAL.)

Comparison of mean mental ages in the bilingual and monoglot schools.

When the four age-groups are considered separately—see Table I (a)—and the mean mental ages are compared, the monoglot schools are superior in each case on the verbal test with an average superiority of $\cdot 8$ of a year, but on the non-verbal test it is the bilingual schools that are superior in each case with an average superiority of $\cdot 44$ of a year.

When a further division is made according to sexes—see Table I (b) and (c)—the results are slightly less consistent, probably because the groups are smaller and therefore less representative; even so, however, if the average is taken, the monoglot boys are found superior to the bilingual boys and the monoglot girls to the bilingual girls on the verbal test, but contrariwise on the non-verbal test.

Thus while on the verbal Mental Test the children from the bilingual schools appear to be inferior to the children from the monoglot schools, the results of the non-Language Mental Test point to a different conclusion.

Sex Differences.—It will be seen that the boys are distinctly superior to the girls on the non-verbal test. The writer would suggest that though there may be sex differences involved in the various constituents of the test, the inferiority of the girls is due in part at least to lack of interest in the material. It was observed when the tests were being given that the Pintner Test appeared to be much more popular with the boys than with the girls, who generally seemed to prefer the verbal test. Hence it may be that temperamental or emotional factors are largely responsible for the sex differences noted in the results of the tests, but the matter requires further investigation.

Comparison of results of the tests with teachers' rankings for intelligence.

In this investigation the children of each standard tested were ranked for intelligence by their class-teachers (it was found not practicable to have the ranking done for age-groups). Correlations were found, by means of Spearman's foot-rule, between the teachers' estimates and the tests, also the correlations of the tests with each other both by standards and age-groups. The coefficients of correlation varied from:

+ $\cdot 154$ to + $\cdot 678$ for teachers' estimates and Northumberland I.Q.'s (average, $\cdot 453$);

+ $\cdot 106$ to + $\cdot 473$ for teachers' estimates and Pintner I.Q.'s (average, $\cdot 282$);

+ $\cdot 114$ to + $\cdot 575$ for N.I.Q.'s and P.I.Q.'s (average for standards, $\cdot 351$; average for age-groups, $\cdot 408$).

TABLE I.
COMPARISON OF MEAN MENTAL AGES IN THE BILINGUAL AND MONOGLT SCHOOLS.

Age last Birthday in years.	Northumberland Test.				Pinthner Test.			
	Schools A. B. C.* (bilingual)		School D. (monoglot)		Schools A. B. C.* (bilingual)		School D. (monoglot)	
	No.	Mean M.A.	No.	Mean M.A.	No.	Mean M.A.	No.	Mean M.A.
10	101	8.7	98	9.6	(a) BOYS AND GIRLS.			
11	112	9.4	74	10.5	—0.9			
12	78	10.0	64	10.5	—1.1			
13	63	10.1	66	10.8	—0.5			
					—0.7			
10	50	8.6	35	9.75	(b) BOYS.			
11	51	9.6	31	10.4	—1.15			
12	41	10.2	27	10.0	—0.8			
13	27	10.5	26	11.0	0.2			
					—0.5			
10	51	8.8	63	9.6	(c) GIRLS.			
11	61	9.3	43	10.6	—0.8			
12	37	9.8	37	11.0	—1.3			
13	36	9.8	40	10.7	—1.2			
					—0.9			
					8.8			
					9.3			
					9.75			
					10.7			
					8.7			
					9.4			
					9.8			
					10.6			
					8.7			
					9.6			
					8.2			
					9.2			
					9.75			
					10.3			
					0.1			
					0.4			
					0.95			
					0.3			
					—0.85			
					0.9			
					1.4			
					0.55			
					0.6			
					0.1			
					0			
					0.4			

* See note on page 241.

TABLE II.
SAMPLES OF CORRELATIONS OF RANKINGS BY PINTNER AND NORTHUMBER-
LAND TESTS WITH EACH OTHER AND WITH TEACHERS' RANKINGS FOR
INTELLIGENCE.

Standard.	No.	Teachers' ranking with N.I.Q.	Teachers' ranking with P.I.Q.	N.I.Q. with P.I.Q.	Age in years.	No.	N.I.Q. with P.I.Q.			
SCHOOL D.—BOYS.										
VII	20	·413	(·233)	·293	13—	26	·448			
VI	34	·678	·335	·470	12—	27	·456			
V	31	·318	(·106)	·368	11—	31	·531			
IV	31	·462	(·122)	·337	10—	35	·421			
SCHOOL D.—GIRLS.										
VII	31	·500	(·175)	·275	13—	40	·291			
VI	46	(·154)	(·171)	·316	12—	37	·211			
V	39	·486	·309	·407	11—	43	·506			
IV (a)	28	Not available			10—	63	·487			
IV (b) ..	30	·272	(·199)	·292	—	—	—			
SCHOOL A.—MIXED.										
						SCHOOLS A., B., C., * COMBINED.				
						No.	Boys.	No.	Girls.	
VII	31	·419	·375	·356	13—	27	·488	36	·513	
VI	44	·606	·473	·479	12—	41	·407	37	·399	
V	40	·542	·242	(·114)	11—	51	·285	61	(·169)	
IV	25	·606	·308	·394	10—	50	·450	51	·464	

N.B.—A bracketed coefficient is less than three times its probable error and therefore without significance.

* See note on p. 241.

There is a fair amount of correlation between the teachers' rankings and the Northumberland Test, but the correlations between the same rankings and the Pintner Test, though positive, are low and in many cases insignificant. It is probable, however, that these rankings are based chiefly on the pupil's proficiency in academic subjects, and that the

teachers' idea of intelligence is not sufficiently comprehensive. That such is the case is indicated by the fact that there is a fair amount of correlation shown between the Northumberland and Pintner Tests in the age-groups (the age-group is a less selected group than the standard), and also by the comparatively high correlation found between the Pintner Test and the National Institute Test (see Table IV) in the case of the boys (as the girls tested were a smaller and more selected group the correlation coefficient in their case was naturally rather lower.) The correlation between the secondary schools' examination scores and the Pintner Test points to the same conclusion (see Table III).

TABLE III.

CORRELATIONS OF SCORES ON NORTHUMBERLAND AND PINTNER TESTS (1930) WITH EACH OTHER AND WITH SECONDARY SCHOOLS' ENTRANCE EXAMINATION SCORES (1931), OBTAINED BY THE PRODUCT-MOMENT FORMULA.

<i>Subjects.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Secondary Schools' Entrance Examination with N test.</i>	<i>Secondary Schools' Entrance Examination with P test.</i>	<i>N test with P test.</i>
Boys from School D	35	.696	.568	.549
Girls from School D	37	.538	.486	.532

TABLE IV.

CORRELATIONS OF NORTHUMBERLAND, PINTNER, AND NATIONAL INSTITUTE TEST SCORES, OBTAINED BY THE PRODUCT-MOMENT FORMULA.

<i>Subjects.</i>	<i>No.</i>	<i>Northumberland with National Institute Test.</i>	<i>Pintner with National Institute Test.</i>	<i>Northumberland with Pintner Test.</i>
Boys from School D (the 11-year group)	35	.891	.840	.750
Girls from School D (the group subsequently described)	26	.770	.573	.595

N.B.—Each of these coefficients exceeds the Probable Error more than five times.

These findings are in harmony with the results of a number of investigations in U.S.A. reported by Professor Pintner, who contrasts the very low coefficients of the teachers' rankings with this test, and the much higher coefficients obtained when it was correlated with other intelligence tests, especially when the range of the subjects tested was not the restricted one of a single grade (standard). The two highest correlations between various verbal intelligence tests and this test was found in the case of policemen and tradesmen respectively;* is this an indication that the test is a better measure of an intelligence that shows itself in a practical sphere than of a more academic type of intelligence?

Remarks on the results of the re-test.

The two tests were given a second time about a year later in the two monoglot schools to the eleven year group of boys, and to the twenty-six girls who ranked highest (in their school) in the secondary schools' entrance examination, excluding two girls who had not taken the tests in the previous year.

The correlation coefficients obtained with the product-moment formula for the first and second trials were as follows:

For the twenty-seven boys ·854 on the *N* test scores ;
·796 on the *P* test scores.

For the twenty-six girls .770 on the *N* test scores;
 .573 on the *P* test scores.

Each of these coefficients is more than five times the probable error.

The coefficients for the girls are lower than those for the boys, which was to be expected, as the girls were a more selected group; but obviously for this particular group of girls the Northumberland was a distinctly more reliable test than the Pintner.

Comparisons with results of other investigations.

When the Pintner and the National Intelligence Tests (the latter corresponds to the Northumberland Test) were given to third and fourth grade children in a New York city school it was found that whereas the foreign children fell markedly below the American children on the verbal test, there appeared no difference between the foreign groups (as a whole) and the American group on the non-language test.† In our investigation the inferiority on the verbal test of the children from the bilingual schools is accompanied by a slight superiority to the children from the monoglot schools on the non-language test.

* Pintner, Rudolph, *Results obtained with the non-language Group Test.*—*J. of Ed. Psych.*, Vol. XV (1924), p. 476.

† Pintner, R., *Comparison of American and Foreign Children on Intelligence Tests*. *J. of Ed. Psych.*, Vol. XIV, pp. 292-295.

It may be noted that in the case of the boys (with the exception of the small twelve year group) the mean I.Q.'s in the Northumberland Test for the monoglot school correspond fairly closely to those found by Davies and Hughes* (with the same test) for non-Jews attending a school ("School B") "in a moderately poor district in East London"; the mean I.Q.'s of the monoglot girls are lower than those of the corresponding girls' school in London but slightly superior to those of a school ("School C") "in a very poor district in East London."

Average Menial Ratios.						
	School B. (Lond.)		School C. (Lond.)		Monoglot schools in this investigation.	
Age.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.
10	95	97	87	85	94	90
11	91	95	85	83	93	94
12	97	90	83	82	81	88
13	86	93	75	75	84	81

With regard to Saer's investigation, if we compare the median M.A.'s of his rural children with those of our boys and girls from the mining areas (as determined by the non-language test), whereas on Saer's (verbal) tests the bilingual children are inferior at each age to the monoglot children, the contrary is the case in this investigation when a pictorial test is used, as will be seen from the following figures.

Saer's† Median M.A.'s.					
Physical Age (Years).	7	8	9	10	11
Monoglots (rural)	7	7·8	8·3	9·4	10·2
Bilinguals (rural)	6·5	7·1	7·8	8·5	9·2
Difference (in favour of Monoglots)	·5	·7	·5	·9	1·0

Median M.A.'s on Pintner non-Language Test.				
Physical Age (Years).	10	11	12	13
Monoglots (mining area)	8·75	9·6	9·95	10·6
Bilinguals (mining area)	8·95	9·9	10·8	10·8
Difference (in favour of Bilinguals)	·2	·3	·85	·2

* Davies, M., and Hughes, A. G., op. cit., pp. 137-139.

† Saer, D. J., op. cit., *Br. J. of Ed. Psych.*, Vol. XIV (1923), p. 28.

These findings, however, are not necessarily contradictory. If the tests measure the same mental factor "g," it would still have to be ascertained to what extent success in each is determined by "g."

If, on the other hand, the tests measure different types of intelligence, then the findings of this investigation may be regarded as supplementary to Saer's. All that can be claimed is that we have here an indication that bilingual children will not prove inferior to monoglots (with a similar social environment) in an approved Intelligence test from which the linguistic element is excluded.

It may be noted, too, that there is not much difference between the median I.Q.'s as found by the Pintner test in the three bilingual schools and those which Saer got in the four rural Welsh-speaking districts, Saer's* median I.Q.'s being 86, 85.1, 83.5, and 82.3, and those on the Pintner test averaging out to 85.5, 80.2, and 86.0 in the three schools respectively. Thus Saer's average is 84.2 as against 83.9 on the Pintner test.

V.—CONCLUSIONS.

While it is not suggested that the Pintner non-Language Mental Test is as reliable a measure of the intelligence of the individual child as the Binet Tests (used by Saer), it is claimed that it is a fairly satisfactory instrument for comparing the intelligence of different groups.

Measured by this non-language mental test the children of three bilingual schools, of the ages 10-14, in a Welsh-speaking mining district appear on the whole slightly superior to the children of the same age-groups in two monoglot schools in an English-speaking mining district of the same county.

The results of this investigation apparently conflict with Saer's findings as to the "effect" of bilingualism on intelligence, but in view of the different nature of the tests employed, our results may, perhaps, be regarded as supplementary to his.

It is, however, indicated that, under conditions of bilingualism, intelligence tests of a non-verbal nature should be used in preference or in addition to those in which success is conditioned by linguistic ability.

The general inferiority of the children from the bilingual schools when measured by the Northumberland Test is doubtless to be attributed to language difficulties and in particular to their imperfect comprehension of the English Language.

* Saer, D. J., op. cit., *J. of Exp. Ped.*, Vol VI (1922), p. 267.

This raises the question whether the children from these schools are similarly handicapped when they pass to the secondary schools in examinations in which not only the comprehension but the active use of the English language is required.

The writer desires to express thanks to the Directors of Education and head teachers who gave facilities for testing in the various schools, to the Training Department students and the teachers who assisted in giving the tests, and to Professor O. Wheeler and Dr. Oates for helpful criticism.

RÉSUMÉ.

ETUDE COMPAREE DE L'INTELLIGENCE DES ENFANTS DANS CERTAINES ECOLES BILINGUES ET MONOGLOTTES DU PAYS DE GALLES MÉRIDIONAL.

On établit une comparaison, au moyen d'un test sans langage, et les résultats de ce test sont, en plus, comparés avec les résultats d'un test de langage (en anglais). D'après le test sans langage les enfants des écoles bilingues semblent, à tout prendre, légèrement supérieurs aux enfants des écoles monoglottes d'une région semblable (mines de charbon) bien qu'inférieurs d'après le test de langage.

On compare ces résultats avec les résultats d'une enquête antérieure, bien connue (celle de Saer), et on arriva à la conclusion que, pour les enfants bilingues (en tout cas), les tests de langage n'offrent point de mesure suffisante de l'intelligence, mais qu'ils devraient être complétés par d'autres n'exigeant pas l'emploi du langage.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG.

EINE UNTERSUCHUNG DER VERGLEICHENDEN INTELLIGENZ VON KINDERN AN GEWISSEN ZWEISPRACHIGEN UND EINSPRACHIGEN SCHULEN IN SÜDWALES.

Ein Vergleich wird mittels eines nichtsprachlichen Intelligenztests gemacht und die Ergebnisse dieses Tests werden weiterhin mit den Ergebnissen eines Wortintelligenztests (im Englischen) verglichen.

Bei der nichtsprachlichen Prüfung zeigen sich die Kinder an den zweisprachigen Schulen den Kindern an den einsprachigen in einem ähnlichen (Bergwerks-) Gebiet im allgemeinen ein klein wenig überlegen, obschon sie beim Worttest nachstehen.

Die Ergebnisse werden mit den Entdeckungen einer älteren bekannten Untersuchung (der von Saer) verglichen, und man schliesst daraus, dass (wenigstens bei zweisprachigen Kindern) Wortprüfungen keinen genügenden Masstab für die Intelligenz bieten, sondern dass sie durch andere ergänzt werden sollten, die den Gebrauch der Sprache nicht verlangen.

CHILD GUIDANCE ON THE CONTINENT.

By C. L. C. BURNS.

- I.—*Introduction to observations gathered during ten weeks' journey through some European cities.*
National and individual differences in psychological approach to Child Guidance problems.
- II.—*Institutions in Italy, Rome, and Genoa. The interest of Professor Pende's Institute at Genoa and his type psychology.*
- III.—*Switzerland. Zürich and the influence of Bleuler. Observation classes in schools.*
- IV.—*Vienna. "The Kultur-Kamp" of various schools. The work of the Bühlers. Individual psychology. Psychiatry and juvenile delinquents.*
- V.—*Germany. Munich and its clinics and reformatory houses. Berlin. Professor Kramer's Clinic. Spread of Adlerian methods.*
- VI.—*A note on Budapest. Prague and the school of Bakulev.*
- VII.—*Holland and Belgium. Child Guidance Clinic in Amsterdam. A note on Moll and Conclusion.*

I.—INTRODUCTION.

THE following record of observations is compiled from a tour of various European cities lasting over a period of some ten weeks, prior to starting the Child Guidance Clinic in Birmingham.

It cannot pretend to give a full and accurate description of organization in all the various branches of Child Guidance, using this term in its broadest sense; apart from the limitation of time, difficulty arises from the fact that the terms used in various languages to express various activities in this domain do not always correspond in meaning, and that institutions and schemes of organization in different countries may be very similar but never exactly alike in their aim and scope. The value of a differential study lies rather in establishing the general tendencies and orientation as exemplified by different nations and individuals. The different psychology of nations produces different methods no less than that of individuals.

The differences might be described in terms of horizontal variations of nationality or race, penetrated by the vertical cleavage of individual minds, together producing a result which will be a compound of these two variants.

The difference in respect to nations will best be illustrated on the one hand by the description of work in Italy with its highly objective and

mainly psycho-technical approach, and on the other by the psychological, almost purely "affective," point of view of an Austrian or German individual psychologist.

It is an interesting question whether a country does not get what it needs, and whether or not the prevalence of "neurosis" and the need for "Psycho-therapy" is not greater for us and for Northern races in general than for Latin countries. This may seem a bold statement to make, but it is apparently a fact that there were fewer cases of war-neurosis among them, and it may be that their more objective or realistic approach to life and their earlier "adulthood" makes them less predisposed to this form of human ill; the stability of their family life may be an added factor. The generalization may be quite fallacious and is merely suggested.

The difference in schools of thought and method arise also from the line of approach from which they each start—whether mainly medical or mainly psychological. These are best illustrated in the case of Vienna, which is naturally the "Kultur-Kampf" of the different psychologies in Europe to-day. We find here four main schools of thought, with a fairly rigid separation between them: the more orthodox neuro-psychiatry of the University clinics; the Freudian; the Adlerian; and lastly, the experimental psychological school of the Bùhlers, which approaches to the Behaviourist. The important difference to note, however, not only in Vienna but in other cities, lies between the neuro-psychiatric and the psychological approach. The former tends to stress the organic side and, no less, the hereditary basis of psychopathy and behaviour problems; it is therefore bound to a less optimistic outlook. The latter stresses to a greater extent the influence of the home environment and the possibilities which lie in training, explanation, and encouragement, even in the most apparently hopeless cases, and is more hopeful as to results.

Such is the impression at any rate that arises from the observation, firstly, of that group of clinics which are respectively directed by Professor Isselin in Munich, Lazar in Vienna, and Kramer in Berlin; and, secondly, of the many individual psychological clinics in these cities. It must be stressed, however, that this difference of outlook refers to *treatment* rather than to investigation, though treatment depends largely on diagnostic labels and what they imply. It is, however, probable that in time, the mutual influence of these different schools will produce more homogeneous lines of treatment, with less partisanship, and consequently less waste of effort and better results.

It must also be stated that the discussion of these divergent schools does not apply to work among mentally defective children, because here

the problem is more clear-cut and better established, and the training and schooling of these children shows a great similarity in different countries. There will be seen to be, however, a general distrust of standardized mental testing in the American sense, and this opinion was expressed by various psychologists—from Rome to Berlin.

If my record should seem to be coloured by an Adlerian bias, I may say that I started with no such bias and that it is from what I have seen and heard that I have acquired my respect for the "individual-psychological mind," at any rate as applied to the treatment of the "problem-child." There is always the danger that a school of thought should become too systematized, and should fail to realize its limitations. There is, perhaps, a tendency with the Adlerian school to overlook to some extent the differentiation of temperament and character in children, and to expect all children to be capable of almost any achievement, but this fault certainly lies on the right side of optimism.

Lastly, with regard to what may be learned as to our own needs, I would say that it is primarily the training of doctors, teachers, and social workers, but principally of teachers, in the principles of Mental Hygiene (or what is termed in German "*Heil-Pedagogic*" for which we have no exact term in English), and, of course, the extension of Child Guidance work, though not necessarily in the sense of fully equipped and organized units, for a great deal may be accomplished by an individual with no equipment at his disposal. None of the clinics visited could be said to correspond exactly or completely to the "triumvirate" organization of team work of a Child Guidance Clinic, though in most the general method and technique naturally tends to approximate to this in principle, and to lead to the same end. There is generally less investigation of the psychological environment in the home itself; not necessarily through lack of workers, but in some cases because this is considered to lead to a more divided and less direct approach, which may even hinder rather than help the work of the "psychiatrist."

Secondly, that there is a great need for homes of observation and treatment of "problem-children."

Thirdly, the possible value of special classes for backward and "difficult" children (though this is a somewhat different problem with very wide bearings) like the ones in Zürich. Generally speaking, the impression remaining is one of great enthusiasm and an ever-increasing activity in all the countries visited, in the field of the Mental Hygiene of childhood, an activity which is, alas, too often hampered in the Europe of to-day by harassing economic conditions.

II.—ITALY.

The key-note of Italian work with backward and psychopathic children would seem to be the vast degree of correlation which is attempted for each case, with an elaborate amount of investigation from every angle. A neuro-psychiatric clinic such as the one to be described, or *Professor Pende's* institution in Genoa, attempts to combine the function of a medical research unit, a laboratory of experimental and industrial psychology, and a school of pedagogy and social service. Most of the Child Guidance work in every form in Rome, and indeed in Italy, owes its inception to *Professor Sancte de Sanctis*, who started special schools thirty-five years ago and now runs the "*Clinica Neuro-psichiatrica Infantile*" as part of the Medical Faculty of the University of Rome.

This is a self-contained unit which includes two observation wards for about thirty boys and girls respectively and four laboratories, including bacteriology, psycho-pathology, bio-chemistry, photography, and cinematography.

The headings under which the child is examined are such as the following :

Complete physical examination, including anthropometry, dynamometric and spirometric measurements (with respiratory curves for those with speech defects).

Neuro-endocrine investigation, including pharmacological tests.

Secondly, mental tests, including Terman, Vocational and Educational tests. Character tests, including "Exploration of the Sub-conscious" by means of association tests, etc.

Tests for perseveration and fatigability.

Thirdly, Sociological enquiry, which is not very full, visits being paid to the home apparently only in some cases.

The leaving-age for school in Italy is fourteen but appears to vary with social standing, intellectual capacity, etc. Technical instruction and after-care are well organized. Education was placed on a new basis by the reforms of 1925, and an interesting feature is that each school year possesses a single text-book containing all the subjects allotted to that year, and these are uniform throughout Italy.

Of special interest are the small schools scattered over the Campagna and elsewhere for children of the peasants (*Contadini*), who live under very primitive conditions. A special approach is required ; in some cases even to induce their children to enter the school is a difficult matter. One of the chief educational methods is singing, which is taught by the "Justine Ward" method, with amazing results. The voice production, accuracy

of tone, and facility both of singing at sight and of composing are very remarkable. While the children were singing a Gregorian hymn, one small person was composing a song of her own on the blackboard, which was then sung at sight by the whole class! Drawing, gardening, and agriculture are also important subjects used, and the children are taught a very beautiful orthography with special pens. These schools, as well as the special schools, are privately run with State aid.

The special schools are distinguished by smaller classes, individual teaching, longer terms, and a great deal of handicraft; the one that was visited had a complete printing press as part of the equipment.

In each of these schools there is a clinic (called *Ambulatorio*) in which other children besides those attending the school can be seen by the psychiatrist.

Delinquents are counted juvenile up to the age of eighteen. According to the psychiatrist with whom I discussed the question, delinquents after being accused, but before being judged in the children's court, can be sent to an observation home for at least a week, when a very full report on home conditions, physical and mental condition, is prepared and presented to the judge at the trial. Very few are sent to reformatories apparently, and great reliance is placed on various social agencies, the whole tendency being to regard juvenile delinquency as a problem of Mental Hygiene rather than a penal one.

Genoa might appear to be an unlikely place in which to study psychological clinics, but it is here that we find the "*Instituto Biotipologico Ortogenetico*"; a self-contained unit, forming part of the Medical Clinic under Professor N. Pende, with Professor Vidoni in charge of the psychological side.

Although dealing with a great variety of conditions both in children and adults it may be said to furnish an example of one form of "Child Guidance" where all aspects of the individual child are taken into account. Children are sent from schools, practitioners, etc., and notably from the *Balilla* or Fascist boy-scout organization, for the assessment of educational and manual capacity and character.

There are no less than sixteen rooms through most of which any one case may pass before a complete record is compiled. These include departments for:

- (1) Physical examination and anthropometry (which it may be recalled had its inception largely in Italy under Viola and De Giovanni).
- (2) Photography, Radioscopy, Cardiography.
- (3) Biochemistry and Basal Metabolism.

- (4) Psychology, including mental and psycho-physical tests of every conceivable kind. The apparatus (which is nearly all designed by Professor Pizzoli of Bologna) is of the most diverse and elaborate kind imaginable and includes very complete testing apparatus for prospective aviators and motor-drivers.

The nervous or maladjusted child (often spoken of here as *anormali falsi* or "false abnormals") are examined firstly physically, then psychologically as far as is thought necessary, by the usual intelligence tests as well as word association, drawing, hand-work, and by the elaborate machines above mentioned, while information is gathered from the parents and teachers, and in some cases visits are paid to the homes.

It will be seen that an attempt is made to effect a complete correlation of all factors for each individual case and that the more objective or experimental psychological investigation is very full, though there is less of the detailed and painstaking enquiry into the family environment which we know.

The impression made is that while the Institute is a daring and inspiring piece of work, there is a certain hastiness in judging results and a certain lack of critical verification. The development of ideas with regard to "types" is interesting in view of the influence of Kretschmer's work in this field in psychiatry generally.

Pende considers the individual to be, for illustrative purposes, like a pyramid with a "hereditary base" and four facets:

Morphology (or shape and size, internal and external).

Temperament (humoral, endocrine).

Character (instinctive and emotional life).

Intelligence (general and special).

His latest classification of physique is into two main types: *Longilinear* and *Brevilinear*, each of which is sub-divided into sthenic or strong and asthenic or weak, the "weakness" being mainly explicable on endocrine grounds.

The two main types would correspond to the Leptosomatic and Pyknic types respectively of Kretschmer, while he claims that his sub-division of each corresponds more closely to the reality. It is also claimed that this holds good to a great extent for children as well, however much they may change at puberty, and that the assignation of a type plays a part in the assessment of the child's make-up and potentiality.

There are two special schools in Genoa under the charge of Professor Vidoni. They are very similar to those in Rome and the influence of De Sanctis is manifest.

One of the schools was seen. Gymnastics to music and handicraft of all sorts and kinds seemed to be a strong feature. Professor Vidoni remarked to me that all this work in connection with the Mental Hygiene of Childhood was only beginning, but that more and more progress would be made in Italy as elsewhere.

III.—SWITZERLAND.

In Switzerland there is no one uniform system in the matter of schools, medical services, or juvenile courts, as all these are cantonal rather than national or municipal.

Zürich was the only centre investigated and the organization here is reputed to be the most complete. *Zürich* possesses the famous asylum of Kraepelin and Bleuler, and attached to this, but quite separate from it, is the "*Stephansburg Kinder-Haus*" or observation home for difficult and backward children up to fourteen years of age. Also a "poly-klinik" for out-patients, on Child Guidance lines.

The observation home is a pleasant house on top of a hillock surrounded by trees, with room for about thirty children of both sexes, and is looked after by a house-mother with various assistants (including a social worker trained in America).

The investigation and treatment is very much on Child Guidance lines except that intelligence testing is carried out by the two psychiatrists who are in charge; in addition, of course, full notes are taken by the teachers and those concerned in observing the children.

Here as in the out-patient "poly-klinik" high-grade feeble-minded children, who in addition are neurotic, are also included, forming about 30 per cent of the total.

There is a general tendency to lay more stress on heredity and organic factors than we do, and perhaps to underestimate the influence of environment. Physical treatment, especially endocrine, is also included.

The influence of Bleuler and the proximity of the asylum may explain the frequent diagnosis of psychopathic conditions in children when we should perhaps be content with a more hopeful label. We find in the report that cases are sub-divided into schizoid psychopathy, asocial psychopathy, schizophrenia, and other such refinements in diagnosis.

Dr. Lutz, who is in charge of the home, also runs out-patient clinics with a similar outlook in various other towns in the canton. His work is in close touch with the school medical service, the medical officers of which are responsible both for the normal and special schools and classes.

Children who are below normal in intelligence go to special classes attached to the ordinary schools, while some psychopathic or difficult

children are sent to the "Beobachtung-Klasse" (observation classes), of which there are two; where the work is freer, more talking in class is allowed, etc. I was given the opportunity of seeing one of these classes at work and it seems a valuable system in the hands of the right teacher. About seventy children have passed through in five years, of which the majority are boys. They stay in this class from three months to two years and are sorted out for the ordinary class, special class, or institution.

IV.—VIENNA.

Vienna offers an unparalleled example of the new superimposed upon the old. Into the beautiful spacious town, with its baroque magnificence and former aristocratic manner of living, came the "*Gemeinde*" or municipality of Vienna, with its stark hygienic modern buildings, and its prodigal activity in social welfare, and especially in child welfare.

Child Guidance Clinics of every sort and kind abound in Vienna: there must be at least forty which could be brought under this description, of which about thirty are run by "individual psychologists."

Of those which are more "official" in character, and more of the "neuro-psychiatric" type, Professor Lazar's clinic and observation wards at the Kinder Klinik, may be taken as a type.

Psychopathic, backward and difficult children are examined by psychiatrists trained in educational work, and a few are taken in for observation and treatment. The examination includes intelligence tests, some of the Binet-Simon type, but mostly performance tests with Montessori material, etc.

As regards treatment, the main stress is laid on the new social orientation acquired by the children through being with other children and being assisted in various ways, but apparently not very much belief is entertained in direct psycho-therapeutic treatment of child or parent. The children who have been in-patients often come later of their own free will to spend the afternoon and re-acquire some of the influence of the clinic.

Here again one met with scepticism regarding standardized mental tests; although the testing was marked on a graph and should therefore have been numerical in result, the idea of an I.Q. was not entertained.

Another important centre for research into the problems of child psychology is the Institute run by Professor Kark Bühler and his wife, Professor Charlotte Bühler.

It includes the Institute proper, where instruction and research are carried on mainly in connection with the schools, but the main part

of the work is done at the *Kinderübernahmestelle*, literally the "place-for-taking-over-children," which describes what it is, for here are brought hundreds of orphan, destitute, and ailing children for observation and disposal. There is room for over 200, and here they are kept for three weeks on the average, so that about three thousand pass through in the year.

It is with this material that much of the research in child psychology is carried on, and one is able to watch, through glass windows, the response of children from birth upwards to various experimental situations. One can hardly help feeling that it is almost too much like a menagerie.

The children may go from here to institutions, or to foster-homes which receive careful sociological-psychiatric investigation before they are accepted as such. The work so far carried on by the Bühlerei is practically confined to normal children, but an interesting extension which has a bearing on psychiatric social work in the home is now starting: the study of family life in all its bearings by investigators who are to live with certain families of various types, who have naturally promised full co-operation, and trace the various influences which are forming the children's characters, to be correlated with the experimental study of the children themselves.

Coming next to the psycho-analytic school we find that there are only two centres for child-analysis, which is not done by the play-technique method. One of these centres, run by Herr Aichhorn, deals more specially with delinquents, and not wholly on psycho-analytic lines. Other psychiatrists and psychologists are also influenced of course by the psycho-analytical school, so it is difficult to estimate the degree of activity of the rival schools. There is, however, no question as to this division between the older school with a neurological-medical bias; the experimental school; the Freudian; and the Adlerian. The future alone can decide what degree of fusion or mutual extermination will result.

The Adlerian clinics (or "erziehungs-beratung") number about thirty and are content, as regards personnel, with a psychiatrist (or sometimes a teacher or psychologist merely) assisted by voluntary workers who combine secretarial and social work; as regards premises and material, any room, a table, and chairs, suffice.

Individual psychology is not easy to grasp in its essence, although apparently simple and superficial in its outlook and technique. It cannot be learnt from books and one must catch its "atmosphere" before one is convinced of the value of its approach. Although it takes cognizance of the multiple factors in a human personality, it looks above all to a

synthetic approach, it considers even physical disabilities as being "used," or overcome, so as to fit in with the "style of life," and therefore deliberately fights shy of multiple investigations, whether by intelligence tests or detailed social enquiry (by other people than the psychiatrist), because this means a division, which may nullify the attempt at unification.

One's attitude towards this system or method must depend to a large extent on one's temperament and one's philosophy of life. Yet it can hardly be gainsaid that it is the most optimistic, and the one nearest akin to "common-sense," the one, that is, with the least break from the tradition of the human race.

As mentioned in connection with Munich, the habit of the "open-clinic" before an audience depends largely on geographical conditions, i.e., the easy sociability of the South-Germanic child lends itself to this milieu, whereas the North-German or English child might not take to it to the same extent.

An interesting experiment is being tried out officially in one of the big State schools, where one hour a week is set apart in each class for the children to discuss their problems with each other and with the teacher, who is trained in individual psychology. I attended one such class of ten-year-olds (the first class of the Hauptschule) and what happened was in the nature of a very animated parliamentary debate on such questions as to whether a certain game which is played with buttons should be allowed or not: some of the boys described various methods of evading the eye of the schoolmaster in playing this game during class. The schoolmaster was present guiding the debate, in an inconspicuous manner, sitting among the boys. In this way it is sought to educate the boys to self-government and self-understanding and the idea is a promising one.

Among other social agencies which play a part in the upbringing of the Viennese child may be mentioned the many kindergartens, the wonderful Montessori school, and the "Horts," or play-centres, which are also a feature of post-war Vienna.

I heard the opinion expressed by one or two of the older generation that too much is done for the child outside the family, that the "Municipal-child" will be a problem in himself; but there is safety in the stability and strength of family-life in Austria and in the co-operation and friendly spirit which seems to prevail. The only tragedy to be feared is that the whole machinery should run down for lack of funds.

One of the eight special schools for feeble-minded children was seen and did not appear to differ to any great extent from any other special

school of this sort, except that the teaching material and method seemed to be more on old-fashioned lines than the schools seen in Italy and Switzerland.

The smaller children seemed to be of a slightly lower grade than is usual in such schools, but these get weeded out before reaching upper classes.

Apparently a great number are sent for observation and soon find their way back to normal schools. The director again expressed the opinion that this method of observation was a better one than that of testing, but it is difficult to gauge to what extent testing has been tried and found wanting, or not properly tried out at all. There are also schools for deaf and dumb, for partially deaf and for partially blind children.

Delinquency.

The age for the children's court is up to nineteen and the system resembles that in Germany except that the actual trials are more elaborate, as there are, in addition to the three judges on the Bench, a "Staatsanwalt" or prosecutor, and a defending official.

Two boys were seen being tried for repeated theft. Certain features which struck one about the trial were: that the accused was sent out while the prosecutor and defending officials made their statements, and that the judges then retired to consider their verdict. I was accompanied by a doctor of the individual psychology school who attends unofficially. Only some cases are examined by a psychiatrist, but a full report of home conditions, schools, etc., is obtained by social workers.

Many cases are saved from coming to court and indeed from breaking the law by seeking advice from the Beratungsstellung or "advice-centres" for young people, which were started four years ago by the present head of the Kaiser Ebersdorf industrial school.

This organization includes a panel of psychologists, doctors, teachers, and others, a list of whom is to be put up in all schools, who are ready at any time to listen confidentially to tales of woe from young people who either do not know how to solve their difficulties or are overwhelmed to the extent that they contemplate suicide. The latter problem has engaged the attention of the unit to a special degree during the last year and the number of suicides among minors has decreased in this year from four to one-half per cent of the total annual suicides in Vienna. The attendance at the centre is nearly one thousand yearly. (These figures are taken from a journalistic account, so may be open to correction.)

Similar centres are said to exist in Dresden, Zürich, Budapest, and other places.

The *Kaiser Ebersdorf* reformatory is a large home for over 300 boys of ages from about fourteen up to twenty. It is housed in an old Schloss which is being rebuilt—very gradually owing to lack of funds.

It struck one in many ways as being an excellent institution. Special features are the completeness of the case-records, which include observations based on vocational tests, psychiatric examination at the Lazar clinic, monthly report from the masters, and a life history obtained from the boy himself. Another striking feature is the amount of liberty allowed; those in the "free-group" go out on their own, to Vienna or out in the country, while the others constantly have outings with a master or guide. There is practically no truancy or punishment.

V.—GERMANY.

(a) *Munich.*

The Heckscher Clinic for mental disorders is a comparatively new one under Professor Isselin.

It includes a children's section with room for about thirty in-patients and also takes children who come for classes and spend the day. The Institution is run by nuns with the assistance of lay teachers.

This clinic, although not strictly speaking on Child Guidance lines, serves a useful function in giving medico-pedagogic treatment to a mixed bag of cases—of the sort who are liable to fall between the stools of a General Hospital and the Education Authorities—including M.D.'s of a slightly lower grade than those attending the special classes, post-encephalitics, and a few epileptic and nervous disease cases: the clinic also specializes in cases of speech-defect and special disability generally.

The psychologist, Frau Gräfin Kuenberg, expressed her views on mental tests in general, which she says have not gained ground in Germany so much among psychiatrists as among educationists.

She considers that "intelligence tests," especially those with fixed time-limits, bear a false relation to the type of condition causing retardation, and from the point of view of individual diagnosis and treatment are liable to do more harm than good. The whole child must be taken into account; every child is different and requires different forms of tests with different material; observation of work and play should be the key-note; standardization is wrong.

The Individual-psychology Clinic, under Dr. L. Seif, is a form of clinic like those met with in Vienna, and is on very different lines from the preceding. Dr. Seif is an ardent "individual psychologist" of the Adlerian School, although he had been working on these

lines before this school of thought took shape. He believes in the "open clinic" system: that is the parents first and then the child or children are interviewed before an audience of perhaps twenty-five or more people. One of the arguments in support of this method is that the "proletarian" children are used to hearing their own problems and family problems discussed freely in their presence, so that the scene is merely changed to one where the right view is taken of these problems and the encouraging aspect of their lives is stressed: where they and their parents are educated to harmony and encouragement rather than to conflict and anxiety. Also that the easy sociability of the South-German child lends itself to this public approach to its problems.

The teacher is generally present and gives a report of the child's school life. No special intelligence tests are carried out. A clinic of this type has certainly the merit of simplicity; a bare school-room serves its purpose, and little is kept in the way of records. Social visiting is done to some extent by volunteers trained by Dr. Seif and there is a weekly play-group in a private house.

Dr. Seif has an enthusiastic body of followers—doctors and teachers—who meet more than once a week for lectures, discussions, etc., which are generally prolonged by a further meeting in a café.

Delinquents attend the Children's Court from the age of fourteen to nineteen but are kept under the care of welfare organizations till twenty-one. The system, as in Switzerland, includes an "accusing judge" who sees the delinquents before they reach the Court and decides which are to stand trial, which are to be seen by a psychiatrist or practitioner, or which are merely in need of guidance.

The Court includes three judges, one of whom presides and wears official robes.

When I attended the Court there were about eight people present altogether, including a policeman in uniform. The case being tried was that of a youth accused of sexual misconduct with two boys aged about ten: one of the latter was being cross-examined in detail by the presiding judge, and the painful impression created by this kind of trial (in whatever country it may be) illustrates the need for prevention, and for psychiatric rather than legal treatment, but also the difficulty of avoiding legal procedure when a grave accusation of this nature has to be proved against the offending party, when the latter is more than a child. (The psychiatrist does not attend the Court and I was unable to gather how many cases are actually seen by him.) The welfare work for probation cases is obviously very active, and there are several institutions which are well spoken of. Apparently there is nothing corresponding to a

remand home. These institutions, however, also include destitute or orphan children.

The Clemens-Maria Kindersheim is for children from two to fourteen years old, divided into five sections, and includes a complete school organization. It is run, like most institutions in South Germany, by nuns assisted by lay teachers.

The children who require it are examined periodically by Dr. Luxenberger from the Psychiatric Institute, who also holds courses of instruction for the nuns and others.

The *St. Georg Heim* is a school outside Munich of the reformatory type for delinquent boys from fourteen to twenty-one, of which there are 180 in this institution. It is run by a missionary order of priests. The main feature is the teaching of trades, of which at least a dozen are taught, and also a complete model farm and dairy.

The whole place gave an impression of freedom and friendliness which was enhanced by an impromptu performance of singing and brass band.

The director is in touch with psychological teaching in Munich and deplored the fact that a psychiatrist visited his institution only twice yearly.

There is also a well-known observation and training home for girls at Kochel, some distance from Munich.

(b) *Berlin.*

Professor Kramer's Clinic and observation home is part of the psychiatric section of the Charité Hospital and is run on much the same lines as the Isselin Clinic in Munich and the Lazar Clinic in Vienna, that is to say, it is a neuro-psychiatric unit which studies children with organic nervous disorders as well as psychopathic states.

Professor Kramer expressed his views on Child Guidance Clinics in general and stressed the fact that this work is above all a personal matter and that a clinic must be of slow organic growth. He seemed to consider that clinics in America started off with too much organization and savoured too much of mass production.

An interesting development in his work has been the separation of the guidance or pedagogic part of the work from the medical and psychiatric investigation. The latter is done at his clinic and cases are sent on to the *Beratungstellung* run by *Fräulein Van der Leyen*. This "advice-centre" has in turn grown out of purely social welfare work and in connection with juvenile delinquency. (She has published an account of

her work for the years 1918-30 in the *Zeitschrift für Kinderforschung*, which is the organ of the group of clinics under discussion.)

This development is another sign of the tendency for treatment of psychopathic children to take a pedagogic rather than a purely medical form, which has become everywhere evident in latter years.

There is very close co-operation between the psychiatric clinic and the guidance centre and the system would appear to work very well.

Perhaps the most interesting feature of child-psychology in Berlin is the growing influence of individual psychology. Dr. Adler himself has been there for some time and I had the opportunity of meeting him, but I was informed from quite independent sources of his influence in Berlin. Such prominent pediatricians as Professor Finkelstein and Professor Meyer send their cases of difficult children to individual psychological clinics, and one of the chief school medical officers runs a clinic of this type.

At the *Waisenhaus*, which is an institution under Professor Meyer for orphans and for destitute or neglected children, a section is to be started for the observation and disposal of such children as may be termed psychopathic, and will apparently be largely influenced by Adlerian methods.

I had no time or opportunity in Berlin for seeing any special schools or homes but the organization does not differ materially from that in other places. In addition to special schools for feeble-minded there are special classes for difficult children rather on the lines of those mentioned as existing in Zürich.

The Children's Court is also organized on much the same lines as in Munich. One of the judges is an individual psychologist and increasing use is being made of guidance clinics for children from the Courts. Apparently the main idea in connection with juvenile delinquency is to avoid any judicial sentence as far as possible. Most cases are ordered "erziehung" or guidance in one form or another; not only the individual child but the whole family is expected to seek advice.

Here again the judge decides which cases appear to need psychiatric and psychological investigation.

Berlin is behind other cities with regard to homes for delinquents, so I was informed; in Frankfurt, for example, there are three observation homes (in addition to homes of the industrial school type), one for children under fourteen and two others for older boys and girls respectively. Most of the provinces now have such observation homes, often with a doctor attached; but these have only been instituted within the last few years.

VI.—HUNGARY AND CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.

With regard to the more outlying members of European nations there is in Budapest (the capital of Hungary) a flourishing institute of *Heil-Paedagogik*; and also a complete unit consisting of neurologist, psychiatrist and psychologist, which was formed at the request of the children's judge to help him in his work. So even in this city where there are said to be less "repressions" than almost anywhere else, this work is found to be necessary and is well advanced.

In *Prague*, the capital of Czecho-Slovakia, the *Bakulev* school was visited.

This was started years ago to enable children who were badly crippled to make the most of their capacities and astonishing results were obtained in the way of manual work—often done with the feet when hands were not available—and artistic achievement. Many vicissitudes had to be overcome and part of the time the school was broken up, but the children refused to leave their leader and tramped the country with him, barely able to support themselves. From this they were rescued by American help. The school has since been widened to include healthy children, who now form the majority. The creative and independent form of training in this school has important psychological bearings: it shows for one thing how all such movements depend upon the inspiration of some exceptional individual, such as Bakulev certainly is. The most striking of their artistic achievement is their singing, the beauty of which has to be heard to be believed.

It is interesting to note how here, as well as in the distant Campagna of Italy, singing is one of the main forms of training—such as it was in the days of the Greeks.

VII.—HOLLAND AND BELGIUM.

A Child Guidance Clinic was started in Amsterdam about three years ago by Dr. Tibout assisted by Miss de Ranitz, who was trained in psychiatric work in New York. Dr. Tibout has had training in experimental psychology and does her own testing. About 120 cases are treated annually, and public assistance is not afforded on the grounds that not a sufficient number of children can be treated by this method to make it worth while, so that it has to depend precariously on private funds.

There is also a small home for special cases and Dr. Tibout considers that the value of such homes lies in treatment rather than in observation; the latter she considers is generally made fairly completely by out-patient attendance alone.

Dr. Tibout is in close touch with most of the clinics in other countries which have been mentioned in this report. She was able to give me some information about the treatment of delinquents. One interesting feature is the existence of a special "children's police" who are more in the nature of our probation officers. Another is the distinction made between "civil" offence, e.g., being beyond control, and a penal offence; for the former type of problem the delinquent remains a "juvenile" till the age of twenty-one! Also a system of conferences between the judge and what would correspond to a probation officer, before the case is judged, has been instituted.

I would have wished to have ended this report with an account of the work at *Moll*, the well-known reformatory home near Antwerp; unfortunately Dr. Rouvroy was away and I could not be shown round.

One gathers from his lectures and articles that the aim in view is a complete bio-psychological study of the cases, and that psycho-technical methods are largely used, i.e., to measure vital capacity, muscular strength and movement, co-ordination, various forms of intelligence and special abilities, etc., all with a view to suitable pedagogic and other treatment, and not merely for research or diagnosis.

The interesting feature from the point of view of this journey of observation is that here we see once more the Latin mind at work, for to find a parallel method and outlook we have only to turn back to the account of similar work in Italy.

So we see that, in the end, national differences and similarities play a great part in the orientation of psychology; no less than in other branches of human activity.

This report ends with an extremely cursory glance at the smaller countries, but time was short, and in all the countries visited I have omitted far more than I have described.

In conclusion, I desire to express my thanks to the Commonwealth Fund and the Child Guidance Council in London, through whose generosity the journey was made possible; and to the latter for permission to print this report.

RÉSUMÉ.

LA NÉVRO-PSYCHIATRIE INFANTILE SUR LE CONTINENT.

On fournit un rapport sur un voyage de dix semaines en Europe, entrepris dans le but d'étudier le progrès dans la surveillance et l'hygiène mentale, appliquées aux enfants.

On passa la plupart du temps en Italie, en Suisse, en Autriche et en Allemagne, avec de courts séjours à Prague et à Amsterdam.

On remarque que la façon d'approcher la psychologie varie non seulement d'après les traits de caractère nationaux, mais aussi selon que, l'approche se fait d'un point de vue médicale ou d'un point de vue pédagogique.

On décrit des cliniques de névro-psychiatrie infantile, des procédés employés dans des cours de justice pour enfants, et d'autres écoles et institutions.

On remarque des progrès considérables dans l'Hygiène Mentale dans tous les pays visités.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG.

KINDERFÜRSORGE AUF DEM EUROPÄISCHEN FESTLANDE.

Es wird über eine Reise von zehn Wochen berichtet, die unternommen wurde, um die Entwicklung geistiger Fürsorge und Hygiene in bezug auf Kinder zu beobachten. Man besuchte hauptsächlich Italien, die Schweiz, Österreich und Deutschland, und blieb nur auf kürzere Zeit in Prag und Amsterdam.

Man merkt, dass die verschiedenen psychologischen Anschauungen sich nicht nur nach nationalen Eigenschaften unterscheiden: es hängt auch davon ab, ob man den Gegenstand vom Gesichtspunkt des Arztes oder des Pedagogen betrachtet.

Über neuropsychiatrische Polykliniken, über das Verfahren beim Gericht für Jugendliche, und über verschiedene andere Schulen und Anstalten in verschiedenen Ländern wird berichtet.

Grosse Fortschritte in geistiger Hygiene werden in all den Ländern bemerkt, die besucht wurden.

PROGRESS THROUGH A SECONDARY SCHOOL AS MEASURED BY SCHOOL MARKS.

By F. SANDON.

- I.—*Introduction.*
- II.—*The data available.*
- III.—*Term-by-term progress tabulated.*
- IV.—*Some difficulties in dealing with the data.*
- V.—*Tabulation by age and sex.*
- VI.—*Discussion.*
- VII.—*Age and sex differences.*
- VIII.—*An "age allowance" for school marks.*
- IX.—*Comparison of performances of sibs.*
- X.—*Changes in form orders with time.*
- XI.—*Correlation between intelligence test and school marks.*
- XII.—*Conclusions and Summary.*

I.—INTRODUCTION.

IN English Secondary Schools there is each year an enormous compilation of marks of all sorts. Yet of all this accumulated raw material apparently appropriate for the discussion of so many pressing educational questions remarkably little use appears to have been made for this purpose. This is unfortunate, for although the marks are often compiled according to very rough and ready methods, yet they should be of value in various ways. A technique has been devised below for utilizing these marks and applying sound statistical methods to their analysis, and the following pages represent a first analysis of the experience of a particular school. The school concerned is a mixed recognized day school, enrolling about 180 boys and 150 girls, and maintained with five others by an English city local education authority. Between them, these six schools, representing some 2,000 places, admit annually some 400 pupils (boys and girls in roughly equal numbers) from the 3,000 or so pupils of the city of each year of age between 10 and 12. In the competitive examination for admission there is a small age allowance.

II.—THE DATA AVAILABLE.

In the school in question, for each of the three terms of a year, an average mark is compiled for each pupil. This records as a percentage

the score for the pupil's work in the various subjects of the school curriculum on the basis of written homework, short questions on learning homework, classwork, and terminal head master's examinations. There is no standardization of marks in any way (as, e.g., suggested in I), save for "set" subjects where the pupils of any one form are re-classified, e.g., boys to metalwork, girls to cookery, or some to Latin and some to German. Since, also, terminal examinations have not been allowed for in the Easter averages for any pupil, a considerable fluctuation in any pupil's work might well be anticipated, as it is known that some pupils do better at examinations than at class work, and some *vice versa*. The marks recorded cover the period Autumn, 1926, to Easter, 1932.

Practically speaking, all pupils enter in the First Form. (There are only a very limited number of by-term admissions—mostly migrants.) The entrants are placed in one or other of two parallel forms, each of some fifteen boys and fifteen girls, and under the present organization are re-shuffled after a trial term into A (superior) and B (inferior) sections, to make the sections as homogeneous academically as possible. After that, the normal organization is annual in step promotion. Extra jump-a-year promotions are not possible. Demotions are extremely rare. Halts occasionally occur—twenty-five in the experience considered, of which thirteen represent a second year in the School Certificate Form. Transfer from A to B and B to A Forms takes place freely, as indicated, at the end of the first term, but is thereafter rare. The data dealt with include eighty-five cases of A to B transfer, and seventy-two of B to A; about half of each type is accounted for by the first term reshuffling; the others take place as necessary at various times in the school career (of usually five years for the experience here surveyed) for reasons of either pronounced superiority or inferiority in work or for disciplinary or other special reasons.

III.—TERM-BY-TERM PROGRESS TABULATED.

The average marks were recorded in the following manner:

Admitted—September, 1930 (referred to as the 1930 Lot).

Tom Pearce*—Age (on 31st July preceding entrance), 10.1.

Average marks in successive terms, together with forms: A64, A65, A68, A76, A74.

Of these, the first three are, of course, scored in Form I, the next two in Form II, but all with the same "lot" of fellow pupils. This gives rise to the following four pairs of values for earlier mark and successive

* The names are fictitious.

later one: (64, 65), (65, 68), (68, 76), (76, 74), and gives, therefore, four points on a scatter diagram or, alternatively, four entries in the double entry frequency table (Table I). From these four points we could compute the correlation between successive terms for that particular boy. Four values, are, however, far too few for sound statistical analysis, and we therefore tabulate for all the pupils all the pairs of consecutive values (earlier-term-mark and later-term-mark) and use this tabulation for calculating correlations, etc. This gives us the double entry Table I. If there were no consistency in any pupil's work as measured by the marks, then the correlation would, within the limits of random sampling, be zero. If there were absolute determinism and the marks were standardized, the correlation would approximate to unity. As the marks are not standardized, we should not expect a very high term by term correlation.

IV.—SOME DIFFICULTIES IN DEALING WITH THE DATA.

Before discussing the conclusions, one or two points arise in connection with the tabulation. In the first place, the marks chosen for the different arrays to make tables of workable size had to be determined. The marks, as already pointed out, were on a percentage basis. It was found possible to group all marks in the seven arrays, 17-26, 27-36, 37-46, 47-56, 57-66, 67-76, 77-86.

In the second place, although there is no attempt at standardization, yet it is known that marks in A and B forms are very likely given on different basis² and it may be possible to correct in part for this effect. Two tables were obtained, one for earlier mark in A Form and later in B (85 cases), and one for earlier mark in B Form and later in A (seventy-two cases). In both tables the A mark obtained by any individual was, in the long run, of the order 3 to 4 *less* than the B mark obtained by the same individual a term later or a term earlier. In both tables, also, the correlation earlier-later was roughly linear, and was of the order .4 to .6; this is really high, for it must be borne in mind that the transfer cases are those where a big difference in reaction to scholastic influences should be expected, the individuals considered suffering a violent change of environment, and thus more likely to vary (by slacking off, being spurred on to extra effort, and so on) from term to term than the ordinary pupil.

This preliminary tabulation indicates a rough difference between the ease with which any individual could score in the two parallel forms, and, in consequence, all B marks, e.g. x , have been adjusted to the corresponding A value by subtracting 3 marks to give, e.g., $x-3$ as corresponding A mark.

A third point arises in some cases. Consider the following case :

Bill Brewer. Admitted 1930. Age 10·9.

IB 48, IB 40, IB 41. IIB absent, IIB 47.

This boy was absent for one term, and we have no record for that period. In such a case we would record the earlier-later pair from the *two term variation* rather than the one term, entering our values here as : earlier 38, later 44. We have some forty cases of this kind out of 2,586, and one case where a three term change is recorded. This, again, as presumably the marks are likely to become more unduly discrepant with time, will tend to reduce the correlation.

Another entry gives us yet another point :

Joan Stewer. Admitted 1928. Aged 10·0.

IB 37, IB 28, IB 29 ; IIB 29, IB 59, IA 51 ; IIA 49, IIA 44, IIA 50 ; IIA 59, IIA, 59.

This girl was demoted after four terms from IIB to IB. The treatment of this record was, therefore, as follows : The first four scores contributed (34, * 25), (25, 26), (26, 26), three pairs of values, to the double entry table for 10·0 girls of the 1928 lot. The later entries contributed to the 11·0 girls table the following pairs (56, 51), (51, 49), (49, 44), (44, 50), (50, 59), (59, 59). The reason for the assignment of this girl to the 11·0 group is that she is now working with the 1929 entrants, and if she had started with them and worked through, her age would be recorded as 11·0 at entry.

This brings us to the last of our preliminary points, the classification by age and sex.

V.—TABULATION BY AGE AND SEX.

An earlier enquiry³ led to the conclusion that "of two boys who are equal half-way through the term, the younger progresses more rapidly and gets a higher total at the end of the term." Another investigation⁴ suggests that of boys and girls of equal (mathematical) ability at the beginning, the boys come on more than the girls. Further, different rates of educational development in boys and girls are indicated by some enquiries (such as⁵) into competitive secondary school admission examinations age allowance. These results suggested that a fuller enquiry on a larger number of pupils under more uniform conditions for some length of time would be valuable, and, in consequence, it was decided as a result of correspondence with Prof. Valentine in connection with stability

* This is the 37B mark adjusted to A standards by subtracting 3.

of work in schools (see, e.g., 6) to direct the present enquiry to find out how boys and girls of varying ages of entry progress through the school. For this reason, the term-by-term tabulation already referred to was made by sub-tables for the following groups of the population of our experience :

Boys.—Age (*at entry) 10·0 and under 10·4, 10·4 and under 10·8, 10·8 and under 11·0, 11·0 and under 11·4, 11·4 and under 11·8, 11·8 and under 12·0.

Girls.—In similar six groups.

The four-month classification was taken because we thus obtained groups of sufficient size and because experience⁵ suggests that there are certain characteristics *not simply expressed as* linear functions of age which differentiate 10·0 and 11·8 children from the rest. Thus the 11·8 girls of the 1926 lot accounted for half of the whole 1926 girls instead of one-sixth, and the 10·0 girls of the 1931 lot only one-fifteenth instead of one-sixth of all the 1931 girls.

The detailed term-by-term tables for the separate age groups are too extensive to print in full. A specimen one is as follows :

TABLE A.
Boys 11·4-11·7.

		Mark in Earlier Term.							Total.
		17 —	27 —	37 —	47 —	57 —	67 —	77 —	
Mark in Later Term.	17 —	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	1
	27 —	1	11	10	—	—	—	—	22
	37 —	—	6	28	16	2	—	—	52
	47 —	—	1	13	54	30	3	—	101
	57 —	—	—	2	30	37	5	—	74
	67 —	—	—	—	—	4	14	2	20
	77 —	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	1
Total		1	19	53	100	73	23	2	271

When all the twelve tables are combined, we have the following Table I for 2,586 earlier-later combinations.

* Or as modified as indicated on page 272.

TABLE I.
ALL CASES.

		Mark in Earlier Term.							Total.
		17—	27—	37—	47—	57—	67—	77—	
Mark in Later Term.	17—	10	12	2	1	—	—	—	25
	27—	7	66	88	10	—	—	—	171
	37—	1	66	332	194	13	—	—	606
	47—	—	16	187	452	199	6	—	860
	57—	—	—	11	197	341	65	2	616
	67—	—	—	—	5	77	138	21	241
	77—	—	—	—	—	1	30	36	67
Total		18	160	620	859	631	239	59	2586

VI.—DISCUSSION.

Table I above will at once be noticed as a typical one giving high correlation. Without any calculation, if the entries be treated as altitudes and the contours be drawn, e.g., 50, 100, 300 and 400, good approximations to similar and similarly situated ellipses are obtained. The major axis is, very approximately, the line giving equal marks in the two school terms. The two lines of means (mean later mark for specified earlier mark and mean earlier mark for specified later mark) are conjugate axes of the ellipses and indicate the usual feature of regression, i.e., that pupils with marks below (above) the mean in one term tend to increase (decrease) them towards the mean next term. The change is, however, slight, and still postponing our correlation computation, we may, by adding parallel to the diagonal (the major axis), summarize the table as follows :

CATEGORY CHANGES.

Up 2.	Up 1.	Stationary.	Down 1.	Down 2.	Down 3.
34	564	1375	579	33	1

The nett weighted change is -16 times width of category, spread over the 2,586 cases, the calculation being :

$$\frac{1}{2586} \{ 34 \times (+2) + 564 \times (+1) + 579 \times (-1) + 33 \times (-2) + 1 \times (-3) \}$$

This corresponds to a decrease in the mean of $\cdot 062$ marks. Practically the mean is stationary. There are two points to observe in connection

with this : (1) A few very unsatisfactory cases were superannuated, and thus there was a slight weeding-out in the weakest categories. Thus, if the later term mark were such as to call for this action, there would be no next entry in which this final mark would appear as an earlier term mark. Further, when such drags on the form were removed, the class would become more homogeneous, and the teachers would, I think, react by unconsciously adopting a finer discrimination and tending to scatter the marks over the reduced lot ; (2) A certain number of pupils who were "tired of school" and anxious to get posts outside slacked off a lot in their last term or so. Thus we have one girl :

Lot 1926, 11.8. Successive marks : 79, 73, 79, 76, 73, 78, 68, 70, 67, 62, 62, 55, left.

This is not greatly to be distinguished in its effect from the other case.

TABLE II.

Sex.	Age Group.	Individuals	Entries	Later Mean Mark m_l	Earlier Mean Mark m_e	Increase $m_l - m_e$	Later s.d. σ_l	Earlier s.d. σ_e	σ_l/σ_e (to 3 d.p.)	Correlation r_{le}
Boys	10.0—	18	85	50.32	49.62	+ .71	10.22	9.88	1.035	.68
	10.4—	30	195	52.12	52.12	0.00	10.11	9.59	1.054	.74
	10.8—	36	242	51.95	51.79	+ .17	12.07	11.66	1.035	.81
	11.0—	45	296	56.84	57.21	— .37	12.73	12.42	1.025	.84
	11.4—	46	271	52.16	52.64	— .48	10.71	10.82	.989	.76
	11.8—	44	312	55.22	55.96	— .74	11.05	10.79	1.024	.73
Girls	10.0—	13	86	43.36	41.97	+ 1.40	11.26	10.10	1.114	.73
	10.4—	17	101	52.89	52.19	+ .69	12.75	12.29	1.037	.84
	10.8—	35	217	51.73	50.85	+ .88	11.25	10.63	1.059	.77
	11.0—	34	199	52.50	52.66	— .15	11.60	10.94	1.060	.81
	11.4—	35	209	49.78	50.06	— .28	11.40	10.80	1.056	.77
	11.8—	48	373	52.52	52.73	— .21	12.64	12.54	1.008	.84
Boys	Total	219	1401	53.68	53.94	— .26	11.57	11.37	1.018	.79
Girls	Total	182	1185	51.26	51.08	+ .18	12.17	11.79	1.033	.81
All	Total	401	2586	52.57	52.63	— .06	11.91	11.64	1.02	.80

Values given to two decimal places. The Class Index Correction has not been applied to the correlations.

When we compute the constants for the table (see Table II) we have, checking the result already given, an alteration in the mean of $\cdot 06$. The s.d.,* however, also changes, and we observe that the s.d. of the "later" distribution is greater than that of the "earlier." This is significant, and is found in each of the fourteen term-by-term tables, excepting only boys 11·4, where the "later" s.d. is $\cdot 99$ that of the "earlier." We may note how this difference arises if we examine the two marginal frequencies of the big table. We have

Array.	17 —	27 —	37 —	47 —	57 —	67 —	77 —	Total.
Earlier	18	160	620	859	631	239	59	2586
Later	25	171	606	860	616	241	67	2586

In other words, on the whole, pupils below the average fall off still more with time, and those above go up still more. Thus, of the 800 odd below the modal array (47—) there are fourteen more in the earlier 37—array than in the later, and eleven more and seven more respectively in the later 27— and 17— arrays than in the earlier, suggesting that these fourteen have sunk one or two categories and some others even more. The interpretation of these facts thus appears to be two-fold: (1) teachers make their mark scheme more sensitive, and certain pupils "ease off" unduly, both features already commented on; (2) exposure to educative influences has the effect of accentuating individual differences, of making the educationally advanced more advanced and the educationally retarded (speaking relatively to secondary school standards) more retarded.

One other statistic of this table calls for comment here. The coefficient of correlation of later term's mark with earlier term's mark, is $\cdot 8023$, with an s.d. of $\cdot 0070$. This is large, and significant, and is a remarkable result. It measures the resemblance between the marks of individuals

* The s.d. or standard deviation, usually denoted by σ , gives a measure of the scatter of any "population," of individuals, measurements, etc., from the mean. Roughly two of every three cases will lie within a range of $+\sigma$ and $-\sigma$ on either side of the mean.

In any sample there are errors due to sampling, and all our measures are thus estimates, subject to various errors. These errors are measured by standard deviations, and the odds are 2 to 1 (i.e., the probability is $2/3$) that the true value lies within the range (estimated value $+$ its s.d.) and (estimated value $-$ its s.d.); the odds are 20 to 1 that it lies within the range (estimate $+2$ times s.d.) and (estimate -2 times s.d.). This rule is only approximately true if the sample is small, i.e., if terms of order $\frac{1}{N}$ can be neglected in comparison with those in $\frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}$ (say, if the sample is less than 225).

in two successive terms, and is of the same order as that between the lengths of the long bones of the human body. It means that more than 50 per cent of the individuals remain in the same category, a particular range of 10 marks for two successive terms, and this in spite of missed terms, superannuation, demotions, terms without examinations, end-of-school-life-slackness, and other features which, as already pointed out, would tend to decrease the correlation; and in spite of the fact that there is no attempt at standardization of the marks. This can arise if and only if

- (1) the individuals work consistently;
- (2) the teachers mark consistently.

These two conclusions can, alternatively, be put as follows. The evidence indicates that in spite of fluctuations of pupils' efforts, due to variations in will, in health, in domestic ties, and so on, the performance of any pupil one term hence can be quite closely predicted from his performance this term. The evidence further indicates that a class is a unit, and the teacher in his mark system unconsciously adapts his standard of marking and of discrimination to the class, so that although his marks are on a relative basis and not comparable to other groups, yet, in the long run, the marks are comparable one term with another for this class; the class marks are for this class on a quasi-absolute scale. It is only because the class marks are quasi-absolute that we can justify the procedure of lumping together the earlier-later experience of all the various pupils in all their various forms to give us tables such as I.

The correlation obtained, of order .8, is high, and it is of interest to note how it affects a comparison of marks of individuals separated by a longer period. The material is not sufficient for a full analysis, but there are forty-three cases (of 11.8 pupils—boys and girls) where we have records for a three-year progress, e.g. from Summer, 1927, to Summer, 1930, etc. These cases give the following table:

		<i>Earlier Marks.</i>					
		37 —	47 —	57 —	67 —	77	<i>Total.</i>
<i>Mark Three Years later.</i>	37 —	4	5	2	—	—	11
	47 —	3	4	4	2	—	13
	57 —	1	3	7	4	—	15
	67 —	—	—	—	1	1	2
	77 —	—	—	1	1	—	2
<i>Total</i>		8	12	14	8	1	43

The material does not warrant the computation of a correlation, but it is worth noting that of these 43, 16 remain in the same category, 14 go down 1, 4 down 2, 7 up 1 and 2 up 2. This gives a nett weighted change of down 11 or an average of $\frac{1}{4}$ grade apiece. This decrease is slight, and, bearing in mind the observations on page 274, the effective steadiness of any pupil's marks over this period is confirmed.

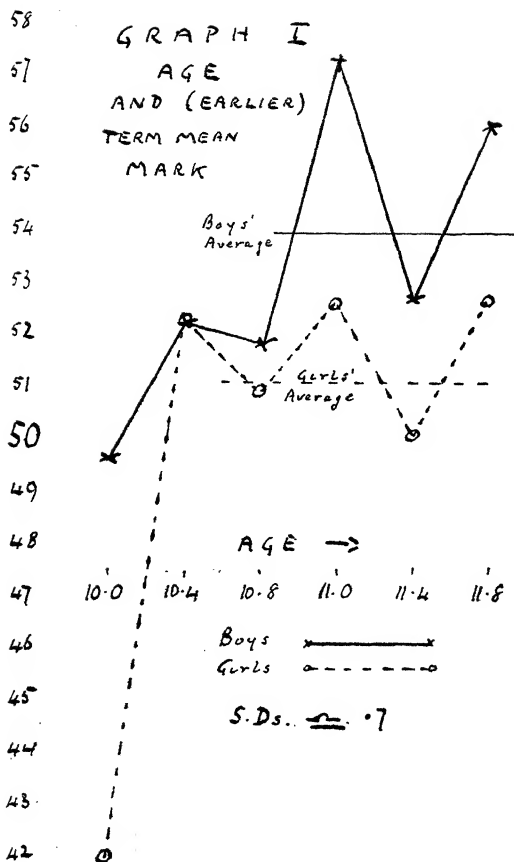
These results may be compared with those given by Professor Valentine⁶ (Appendix Ig, page 180) for correlations between high school "orders" of about .79 when a five-year period was observed.

VII.—AGE AND SEX DIFFERENCES.

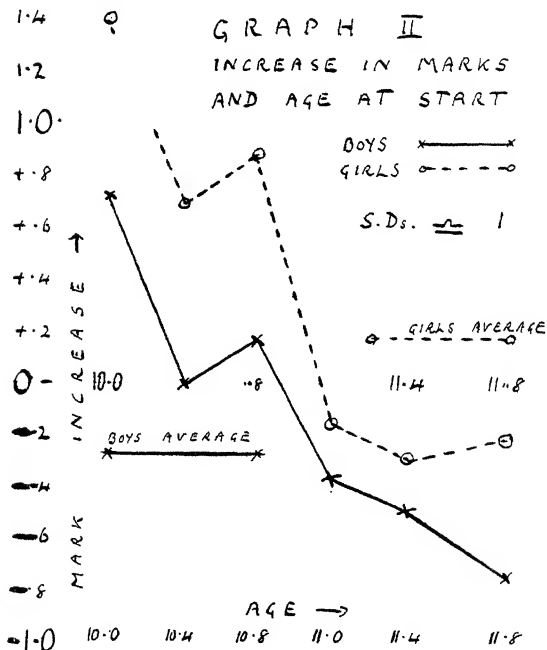
Table II gives us various statistics for the different populations that we are considering. We have already (page 272) commented on the varying number of individuals in these populations; it was an observation of a comparable feature that turned the author's attention to age allowances in secondary school entrance examinations⁵. The number of entries in the records per individual fluctuate round about 6.5; there is an excess of the oldest groups (11.8), both of boys and of girls, due largely to the same above-noted fact, the excess of old entrants being particularly noticeable in the earlier lots considered, where no age allowance had been granted. Thus, of the 29 girls of the 1926 lot studied, one half (14) were of the group 11.8, and these, of course, contributed a heavier number of entries to Table I than did the later entries.

Let us consider the mean mark and take first that for the "earlier" term. These are plotted on Graph I: for greater clarity in reading the points are joined by straight lines, continuous for the boys, broken for the girls. In reading Table II and the graph, we should recall that the measure of this mean is subject to sampling error. As σ is of order 10 and n lies between 85 and 373, the s.d. of the mean is of order $\frac{10}{\sqrt{85}}$ to $\frac{10}{\sqrt{373}}$, say between 1 and .5, or something less than 1 mark. For *all* of one sex, it is of order $\frac{11}{\sqrt{1200}}$ or say .3. For the 10.0 girls the mean is definitely low; there are, however, only 13 girls concerned. Of these, five are 1928 entrants, two of whom, in the course of their school life, were demoted to go with the 1929 lot. If we bear these points in mind we realize that there are significant features about the means.

- (1) the boys average two marks more than the girls;



- (2) the older boys are about one mark better than those four months younger, the continuous line graph inclining upwards at about this gradient;
- (3) but that the older girls score about the same as the younger girls.



When we turn to study the gain-in-marks (measured by $m_1 - m_2$) we can draw Graph II. The s.d.'s of this measure are given by

$$\sum = \frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2} \text{ i.e., of order } 2 \times \frac{100}{200}$$

so that Σ is of order 1. The differences are all (with one exception—the 10.0 girls already specially discussed) less than this, but the graphs certainly suggest

- (4) the younger pupils go up and older go down, so that each group overhauls the group four months older than itself at about .3 marks each term, this being approximately the average gradient of the two lines ;

1.12

1.11

1.10

1.09

1.08

1.07

1.06

1.05

1.04

1.03

Boys \times — \times
 1.02 8 mo. Ave. ———
 Girls α - - - -
 1.01 8 mo Ave. - - - -

1.00

.99

AGE \rightarrow

.98

10.0

10.4

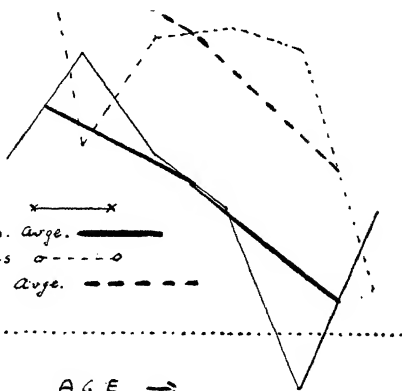
10.8

11.0

11.4

11.8

GRAPH III

AGE AND $\frac{\sigma_l}{\sigma_e}$ σ_l = S.D. of later term mark σ_e = S.D. of earlier term mark

- (5) the girls go up more than the boys. This may be in part a regression effect due to feature (1) ;
- (6) possibly the younger (10·0-10·11) girls as a group are more capable of forging ahead than the older eleven-year-old ones, or than the boys as a whole.

When we turn to examine the s.d.s., we take first those of the earlier set. These all range round about 10 to 12 ; there is no particular law observable, though

- (7) possibly the girls have a slightly larger scatter than have the boys ;
- (8) and possibly there is a slight increase in scatter with age. Neither of these two features is, however, clearly in evidence.

A study of the change in the scatter (measured by σ/σ_s) leads to more definite conclusions (see Graph III).

- (9) the scatter increases as the pupils stay at the school—the one exceptional case, 11·4 boys, has already been referred to on page 276 ;
- (10) this increase is more pronounced for girls than for boys ;
- (11) and it is more pronounced for the younger entrants.

Considering lastly the correlations we observe that they run to the order of ·8. The s.d. for sampling errors is therefore of order $\frac{1-\cdot64}{\sqrt{n}}$

or say $\frac{\cdot36}{18}$ or ·02.

Further, as the coefficient of correlation gives a measure of the resemblance between the marks of individuals in two successive terms, a high value, as already pointed out (page 276), indicates partly that the teachers' scheme of marking is stable and partly that the pupil is working steadily at maximum effort, or the same definite fraction of it. If the pupil is spasmodic, sometimes trying hard and sometimes slacking, the value of r will be reduced. Bearing these observations in mind we conclude that there is no law clearly established, though it appears that

- (12) the term-by-term correlation is greater in the case of the girls than of the boys ;
- (13) the term-by-term correlation increases for the younger boys but falls off for the last two age groups.

Taking, then, these thirteen conclusions, we may, I think, summarize the evidence in the following way :

- (α) On admission, the older boys do better than the younger ; the younger ones are, however, the brighter and overhaul the older

ones steadily term by term. These younger boys progress more steadily than the older ones, and the increasing effort differentiates them among themselves more and more clearly. There are a number of older boys who work spasmodically, and whose effort falls off with lapse of time.

- (β) In the case of girls there is not the same difference in ability of the different age groups as there is in the case of boys, though the boys as a whole score more heavily. Both these are features found in Entrance Examinations. The younger girls are, however, the brighter; they overhaul their older sisters at much the same rate as do the boys. As a whole, the girls work more steadily and consistently than do the boys, the abler girls particularly striving hard all the time to reduce the boys' lead.
- (γ) Education has the effect of accentuating individual differences, of making the educationally advanced more advanced, and the educationally retarded more retarded (speaking relatively to secondary school standards). The change of educational environment seems desirable at an earlier age for girls than for boys; other studies have indicated that girls respond more to their environment than do boys, and young girls seem to adapt themselves better to secondary school environment than do older ones.

VIII.—AN "AGE ALLOWANCE" FOR SCHOOL MARKS.

In entrance examinations an age allowance is commonly granted to equate as far as possible candidates of different ages. The underlying theory is much the same as that of the Intelligence Quotient, which it will be recalled, is defined as

$$\text{Intelligence Quotient} = \frac{\text{Mental Age.}}{\text{Chronological Age.}}$$

We may try a similar idea for our marks as a measure of educational age. Suppose a mark z be indicative of an educational age y , the relation being of the form

$$z = ay + b, \text{ } a \text{ and } b \text{ being constants.}$$

Then, if two pupils this term have ages x and $x+1$ and a mark z , their educational quotients are respectively $\frac{y}{x}$ and $\frac{y}{x+1}$. These are assumed to be constant, so that next term when their chronological ages are $x+1$ and $x+2$ (for convenience, computing ages in terms), their

educational ages, being chronological ages, multiplied by educational quotient, will be $(x+1)\frac{y}{x}$ and $(x+2)\frac{y}{x+1}$ and their marks (assuming them to be on a quasi-absolute basis) will be $\frac{a(x+1)y}{x} + b$ and $\frac{a(x+2)y}{x+1} + b$

These, subtracting, will now differ by $\frac{ay}{x(x+1)}$. But we have found that the terminal gain in marks decreases approximately linearly from +4 for the youngest boys to -8 for the oldest (by fitting a straight line to Graph II), i.e., the younger boy gains on the one year 8 months (or 5 terms) older at almost 1.2 marks per term, or roughly $\frac{1}{4}$ mark per term for each term's difference in age.

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore \frac{ay}{x(x+1)} &= \frac{1}{4} \\ \therefore a &= \frac{1}{4} \frac{x(x+1)}{y}\end{aligned}$$

To evaluate this we note that approximately the ages are those of a pupil half-way through the school course or, say, 13 years or 40 terms, and thus

$$a \simeq \frac{1}{4} \times \frac{40 \times 40}{40} \simeq 10$$

and the marks are given by $z = 10y + b$. Every excess of 1 term in age gives the older pupil a lead of 10 marks.

We obtain a result of similar order by proceeding another way. There are eleven cases of demotion in the course of the school career other than "halts" in the school certificate form. Taking arrays as before we have the following:

ARRAYS GAINED AS A RESULT OF DEMOTION.

Arrays gained	0	1	2	3
Cases	1	2	6	2

The average is $\frac{20}{11} = 1.8$, or 18 marks.

The effect of making a pupil work in a "lot" one year younger is to increase his mark by 18.

These two results give some indication of the order of magnitude involved; the former gives 30 and the latter 18 as the annual age allowance in a form. We may note that this is approximately twice the

standard deviation (10 to 12) and thus, in any form, the great majority of pupils above the average mark would not obtain a creditable mark in the form above. This is as anticipated, for, properly speaking, no age allowance based on educational quotients can be justified, for however capable a pupil, if he has not been exposed to the educational environment of a higher form, he cannot be expected to score the marks showing a mastery there. Age allowances are granted in open examinations because it is assumed that over a number of schools the educational quotient there is an approximation to the I.Q. This assumption is hardly valid in one school.

IX.—COMPARISON OF PERFORMANCES OF SIBS.

We may, however, use this "age allowance" to investigate the correlation between the performance of sibs. A pupil, John Smith, in Form IA had a mark 73 for his first term. His brother, William Smith, was in that form at that educational stage at a chronological age of three months less. He had 68. If he had been there at the same age he would have had $68 + 3y$, where y is the age allowance of marks per month. Approximately y is 2, and we thus have 73 and 74 as corresponding marks of the two brothers. These can be tabulated, and with all the sibs of the experience we can form a correlation table. There are only 63 cases in all, but these give a value for r of $\cdot 8659$. The s.d. of this is $\cdot 0315$, so that we have a very high and significant fraternal correlation for school marks.

Alternatively, we could calculate r in terms of y and then determine y to make r a maximum, but there are too few cases for any reliance to be placed on this method. The value of r above, in fact, must not be used as more than indicative of a high positive correlation, for clearly the correlation between sibs' performances is not really likely to be higher than that between successive performance of the same individual.

X.—CHANGES IN FORM ORDERS WITH TIME.

One other application of our results is in the study of the alteration of a form with time. Our earlier results may be summarized, using linear smoothing (*vide* Graphs I, II, III).

Boys.	Earlier Mean.	Term's Increment.	σ_t/σ_e	σ
10.0	50	+ .4	1.05	11
11.8	56	— .8	1.00	11

Take 10 boys entering the school aged 10·0 and distributed in ability, according to the normal law. Call then $A, B, C \dots$. Then we have

Boy.	A	B	C	D	E
Decile	·5	1·5	2·5	3·5	4·5
Deviate (σ)	1·645	1·036	·675	·385	·126
Boy.	F	G	H	K	L
Decile	5·5	6·5	7·5	8·5	9·5
Deviate (σ)	—126	—385	—675	—1·036	—1·645

Their original marks, taking mean as 50 and σ as 11, are therefore : 68·1, 61·4, 57·4, 54·2, 51·2, 48·6, 45·8, 42·6, 38·6, 31·9.

After nine terms the mean has increased by $9 \times 4 = 36$ marks and σ has become $11 \times (1\cdot05)^9 = 22\cdot87$, so that new marks are : 81·7, 71·3, 65·1, 60·2, 55·7, 51·5, 47·0, 42·1, 35·9, 25·5.

Suppose, also, 10 boys, $a, b, c \dots$, aged 11·8, had entered the form at the same time, with abilities similarly distributed. Then we have :

Boy.	a	b	c	d	e
Deviate	1·645	1·036	·675	·385	·126
Original Marks	74·1	67·4	63·4	60·2	57·4
Marks after nine Terms	66·9	60·2	56·2	53·0	50·2
Boy.	f	g	h	k	l
Deviate	—126	—385	—675	—1·036	—1·645
Original Marks	54·6	51·8	48·6	42·6	37·9
Marks after nine Terms	47·4	44·6	41·4	37·4	30·7

Thus the order of merit of these 20 boys was at first : $a, A, b, c, B, d, e, C, f, D, g, E, h, F, G, H, k, K, l, L$; and was finally : $A, B, a, C, D, b, c, E, d, F, e, f, G, g, H, h, k, K, l, L$.

In other words, if each boy worked steadily and was marked consistently the younger pupils would come on so much 22 places between them. In actual practice, of course, as above seen, the mark of any pupil is not absolutely determined by his age and earlier record (if it were, the correlations found for each sub-table would be 1), but the result

is illuminating about the fluctuations in form ranking due to age. At no stage in a form of mixed ages will the ranking be that of the E.Q.'s of the individuals, so that a true age allowance cannot be obtained, as already indicated on page 285. A corollary is that no school ranking could correlate perfectly with an entrance examination in which an age allowance is included (see Valentine, page 183), or with such an examination without an age allowance (this last being equivalent to the true ranking of different aged individuals at a time different from that of the determination of the school marks).

XI.—CORRELATION BETWEEN INTELLIGENCE TEST RESULTS AND SCHOOL MARKS.

In view, however, of the wide range of the forms considered in our study (chronological ages differing by two years, educational ages of pupils of same chronological age fluctuating above or below their average by about one year), it might be thought that the entrance examination or some similar data might give some rough guide to the ultimate ranking. Valentine has dealt with the former criterion and it would take us too far to pursue this matter here. But it is of interest to note that the majority of entrants of the school for our enquiry for the past three years have taken the Spearman's "Measure of Intelligence" (Methuen's) Test after their selection. The results of this test compared with their form marks after one term are given in the following table, adapted to obtain a rough ranking of the pupils in order of ability.

		School Marks.							
		17 —	27 —	37 —	47 —	57 —	67 —	77 —	Total.
	75 —	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	1
	85 —	—	—	2	1	3	—	—	6
<i>Spearman</i>	95 —	—	—	10	8	3	—	—	21
<i>I.T.</i>	105 —	1	1	7	19	3	—	—	31
<i>Marks.</i>	115 —	—	3	13	23	13	3	—	55
	125 —	—	3	7	17	11	5	1	44
	135 —	—	—	2	3	4	4	—	13
	Total	1	7	41	72	37	12	1	171

The correlation is clearly very small. Actually, it is found that neither the Intelligence Test Marks, the Intelligence Quotient, nor the Entrance Examination gave any reliable guide to the appropriate form allocation ; whereas, after one term's trial in IA or IB, a mark was obtained that gave a very definite indication of whether the pupil was an A or a B pupil. This is borne out by the fact that demotions (25), A to B transfers (85) and B to A transfers (72) account for only 182 earlier-later cases, against the 2,586 of same form cases, and these demotions include School Certificate halts, and transfers include the Christmas First Form reshuffling. It would take us too far afield to investigate this matter now, but it may be pointed out that on the evidence of this paper it seems safer to choose as secondary school pupils sibs of those who have already made a success in such a school than to select pupils by any other test !

This is an illustration of the principle suggested in relation to entrance examinations for secondary schools (7), that whatever test we select by the other tends to seem the better.

XII.—CONCLUSIONS AND SUMMARY.

(1) Term school marks are found to be useful for a study of the way boys and girls of varying age of entry progress through school.

(2) Marks in B Forms in the school considered are increased by an unconscious bonus of about three marks over those assigned to pupils of equal ability in " parallel " A Forms.

(3) Term by term progress was observed for 219 boys and 182 girls, giving 1,401 boys' cases and 1,185 girls' cases.

(4) The term-by-term marks correlate highly ($r=.8$, i.e., of order of correlation of the long bones of the human body) and result in more than 50 per cent of individuals remaining in the same category (particular range of 10 per cent marks) in two successive terms. Even after three years about 40 per cent are still in the same category.

(5) The older pupils at first average 3 marks per cent apiece more than the younger for each year's difference in age, but these younger ones catch them up at about the rate of 3 marks per annum.

(6) The longer pupils are at school the wider become their differences in mark-earning capacity ; educational influences increase natural differences in ability.

(7) This effect is especially noticeable in the case of those who enter the school young, though at entry they do not differ widely among one another.

(8) The girls of the mixed school in question average 2 marks (per cent) less than the boys. But the younger ones catch up as fast as do the younger boys.

(9) The girls differ more among themselves than do the boys, and this difference increases more with the length of their school life, this last feature being particularly noticeable in the case of those girls who enter at the lowest ages.

(10) Girls are more consistent workers than boys as a whole.

(11) A proportion of the older girls and a considerable number of the older boys are unable to keep up with the standards demanded of them.

(12) It is possible that girls should be transferred to a secondary school before the prepubescent dip in intellectual growth so that they may profitably develop throughout in a favourable environment. Transfer at 10+ years is indicated rather than 12—.

(13) There is an appreciable fraternal correlation in school marks : in fact, sibship is the surest criterion that we find for predicting success in the school.

(14) A suggestion is submitted that an appropriate quasi-age allowance within a form of the school considered is of the order 2 marks (per cent) per month. This indicates again that the younger entering pupils are much better fitted for secondary school work.

(15) There is a considerable range of educational quotient in any form, which is not detected by the entrance examination, nor by the Spearman Intelligence Test.

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- ¹ *The Scaling and Totalling of School Marks*, F. Sandon.—*Forum of Education*, 1924, Vol. II, page 29.
- ² *The Fallacy of Percentages*, F. Sandon.—*Forum of Education*, November, 1926, Vol. 4, page 223.
- ³ *A Statistical Analysis of Some School Marks I—The Correlation with Age of Arithmetic Class Marks*, F. Sandon.—*Forum of Education*, February, 1925, Vol. III, page 24.
- ⁴ *The Relative Abilities in Mathematics of Boys and Girls*, F. Sandon.—*Mathematical Gazette*, May, 1926.
- ⁵ *Some Effects of Age in Selective Examinations*, F. Sandon.—*Forum of Education*, November, 1928, Vol. VI, page 270 ; and February, 1929, Vol. VII, No. 1, page 23.
- ⁶ *The Reliability of Examinations*, C. W. Valentine.—Appendix I (g), page 180.
- ⁷ *The Predictive Value of School Examinations and Psychological Tests*, F. Sandon.—*Transactions, British Association*, 1933. Sections J. and L.

RÉSUMÉ.

LE PROGRÈS DANS UN LYCÉE ANGLAIS MESURÉ PAR LES NOTES SCOLAIRES.

On propose une méthode d'utiliser les notes trimestrielles, calculées d'après les procédés ordinaires des lycées, pour examiner certains problèmes. De l'analyse des notes de 219 garçons (1401 chiffres) et de 182 jeunes filles (1183 chiffres) les conclusions suivantes s'imposent, parmi d'autres :

(1) Il existe une corrélation élevée entre les résultats des trimestres successifs chez l'individu.

(2) Les élèves moins âgés tendent à rattrapper leurs aînés.

(3) Il y a une corrélation si élevée entre frères dans les notes scolaires que la parenté est le critérium le plus sûr pour prédire le succès scolaire.

On examine les effets variés des influences pédagogiques sur des élèves, différant quant à l'âge d'entrée, au sexe, à l'aptitude innée. On ne découvre aucun moyen sûr de prédire le succès (sauf 3 ci-dessus), mais l'entrée le plus jeune possible semble s'indiquer.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG.

ZENSUREN ALS MASSTAB DES WEITERKOMMENS IN EINER ENGLISCHEN HÖHEREN SCHULE.

Eine Methode wird vorgeschlagen, wodurch man die im gewöhnlichen Schulgang gesammelten Semesterzensuren gebrauchen kann, um gewisse Probleme zu untersuchen. Aus einer Analyse der von 219 Knaben (1401 Neueintretende) und 182 Mädchen (1185 Neueintretende) gewonnenen Zensuren an einer Koedukationsschule ergaben sich u.a. folgende Schlüsse :

(1) Es besteht eine hohe Korrelation zwischen aufeinanderfolgenden Semesterleistungen irgend eines Individuums.

(2) Häufig holen die jüngeren Schüler die älteren ein.

(3) Es gibt eine so hohe brüderliche Korrelation bei Schulzensuren, dass Blutsverwandtschaft das nächste Kriterium ist, um Erfolg in der Schule zu prophezeien.

Die verschiedenen Wirkungen von Lehreinflüssen auf Kinder verschiedenen Eintrittsalters, Geschlechts, und angeborener Fähigkeit wird untersucht. Keine zuverlässige Methode, um Erfolg vorherzusagen (ausser (3) oben), lässt sich entdecken, aber früher Eintritt scheint ihn wohl anzudeuten.

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT IN YOUNG CHILDREN.

By SUSAN ISAACS. (Routledge. 15s. pp. 480.)

THIS important volume is the second part of the trilogy which Mrs. Isaacs has planned to utilize the material she accumulated during the existence of the Malting House School. The first volume dealt with the intellectual development of her children and showed how they progressed in reasoning and the pursuit of knowledge. This book is concerned with their social adaptation, their loves and hates, and their development, or rather lack of development, in what is generally called "decency." We feel that Mrs. Isaacs is chiefly interested in this latter point, and to this the greater part of the book is devoted.

In plan, the book falls into three main divisions: a verbatim record of certain sayings and doings of the children; a theoretical interpretation of the mental processes underlying these actions; and a short section of practical advice to parents. The actual records are of value in themselves, but they are less valuable when divorced, as here, from the record of the children's other activities. This Mrs. Isaacs herself feels, and asks us to keep in mind the records contained in her earlier book. But, try as we may, this is not always possible to do. We want to know just how large a part these quarrels, visits to the lavatory, threats, or sudden impulses to spit played in the daily life of the children. Not a very large part we gather, but the effect of page after page of such records, unrelieved by more than an occasional ray of friendliness, is to give the reader an impression of the school which is clearly quite unjust.

For the last part of the book we can have nothing but admiration. Mrs. Isaacs' wide experience and understanding of children makes her a most admirable guide in all practical matters. All her suggestions are good, but the one which will appeal most to teachers is her insistence on the value to the child of skill. The child wishes to be good, wishes to be powerful. The way to both these aims lies through the development of skill, and skill is the product of practice. The naughty child is so often the child who has never been allowed to do anything for himself, and therefore does not know how to accomplish his aims save by aggression. As such a child gains the skill he requires his unpleasant traits of character seem to melt away.

The central, theoretical section of the book will not be so readily accepted as the other two. Fortunately Mrs. Isaacs is not anxious for the ordinary practical teacher or parent to concern himself with such

theories. She even suggests that he had better act on her practical advice and leave the theories alone. In this she is very wise. The amateur psycho-analyst is a danger to all those, especially children, who come into contact with him; and the danger is all the greater because so many of the psycho-analytic theories fit the neurotic but seem very little applicable to the normal. This seems very much the case in the comparatively new field of the analysis of children.

Melanie Klein, on whose work Mrs. Isaacs bases so many of her views, stresses over and over again the extremely abnormal nature of the children with whom she had to deal. These were mainly children who were practically uneducable or quite unmanageable. In many cases they came of families with a definitely neuropathic history and had highly neurotic parents. They had, also, obviously, been extremely mismanaged at home. It is quite possible that many of the difficulties of these children were due to premature sexual development, thwarted curiosity about sex matters, most unwise threats by prying parents, or seduction by lustful and cruel nursemaids. It is a far cry to the intelligent, healthy, well-cared for little children who played about in natural rivalry in a Cambridge garden. The result is that the attempt to use theories based on one set of children for the interpretation of actions by the second seems rather pointless. Not even the most careful consideration can make this dark world of perversions necessary to explain the rather harmless and quite normal indelicacies of Mrs. Isaacs' children. The fact is that a child regards its excrements much as an animal does. They are a quite interesting part of itself. Moreover, the nursery training in cleanliness and regularity necessitates attention to the process and talk about it. The second stage is the shame imposed by adult standards, and when this shame is forced on a child too young there is bound to be the formation of a special state of mind which finds outlet in giggling, boasting, and effrontery; and this state of mind does not necessarily pass with childhood.

In a similar way the ambivalent attitude towards their parents, so frequently mentioned, is in no way confined to the child-parent relationship; it characterizes the mentality of the dependent towards the person who is indispensable to him; whether that person be parent, beloved, or even employer. It is as much the torment of the adult as the child. Catullus knew it in his dependence on a woman who abused her power,

Odi et amo. Quare id faciam fortasse requiris.

Nescio; sed fieri sentio et ex crucior.

There are very few adults who have altogether escaped this misery even after they have laid aside childhood.

The second point is of perhaps more importance. No one who has watched children carefully can doubt the early manifestation of the sex instinct. Children of no more than eighteen months will go through all the instinctive movements of flirtation ; and little girls of two years are as full of characteristically sexual vanity and desire for display as their mothers.

On the other hand, a curiosity as to the process of birth which shows itself at about three or four years is not necessarily sexual at all. It is part of the child's general attempt to understand the world. This is in part shown by the fact that the child's interest is mainly in the mother rather than in the father, or the union of the sexes. A child may not ask any questions as to paternity if the information he requires about maternity is given. Unless normal children are placed in very unfavourable surroundings they will not appear to be troubled by sex till they are far older, so long as they are given the information they require to help them to understand their surroundings. If there is confidence between the child and adult the child will ask his questions and accept the answers as naturally as information about any other matter. For the rest, it is the desire for power rather than for sex satisfaction which seems to dominate the small child's life. He is so small, so helpless, is so continually being controlled that it is no wonder that he attempts in all ways to assert himself. Hence the importance of skill for his development, his jealousies of his parents, his attempts to divide them so that one may be his ally against the other, or his blandishments and display of love to the chosen one. To make all this a matter of sex seems unnecessary in view of a child's actions among his own companions.

If the theory is hard to accept in general it is even harder to do so in detail. Many of the statements in these chapters appear very arbitrary when given baldly and without their supporting evidence. "I shall, for example, be evaluating their interest in engines as representing the children's phantasy about parents and the sexual intercourse of parents," page 209. Why? Has this symbol sprung into being in the unconscious since 1830, and what should one "evaluate" a child's interest in steamships and aeroplanes as representing? One could ask similar captious questions about a doctrine mentioned many times in the book, that a child goes through life with a sense of guilt because he bit his mother's breast just before weaning, when his first teeth came through, *e.g.*, "In each case (of children who would not eat) the prime psychological factor was the child's anxiety about oral aggression in sucking or biting the mother's breast, with unconscious phantasies of the irreparable injury this would do the mother," page 325. When the difficulties

in feeding due to this cause are said to date "practically from birth," one's belief is strained. It is to be doubted if the ordinary child has any more idea that it is hurting its mother than the puppy knows he is annoying you when it chews up your slipper in rather similar teething difficulties. One can attribute too much reasoning power to an infant under ten months.

There are many points of a similar nature all giving opportunities for discussion and presenting interesting points of view. Whether one believes the theory set out or not it is extremely valuable to be given the opportunity of considering it in so clear a form and applied to such unusually full and unselected material.

MARY STURT.

THE INTELLIGENCE OF SCOTTISH CHILDREN :

Published for the Scottish Council for Research in Education. (London : the University of London Press, Ltd. Price, 5s. net.)

THE survey which this volume describes forms one of the most ambitious projects which educational psychologists have hitherto ever contemplated or carried out. The results are of great importance. They have an obvious bearing alike on educational and on social problems. Both teachers and educational authorities require to know how intelligence is distributed among the school populations with which they have to deal ; and every civilized country requires to know what is the mental capacity of its inhabitants, how far they deviate in certain cases above or below the normal, and whether the general tendency is towards improvement or deterioration. During the war the United States of America succeeded in assessing the intelligence of nearly two million army recruits. More recently in this country a Joint Committee of the Board of Education and the Board of Control carried out an investigation upon the incidence of mental deficiency within a number of selected areas. With these earlier efforts in mind, Professor Drever suggested that the Scottish Council for Research in Education should undertake a mental survey in Scotland. The incidence of mental deficiency was the primary problem ; but it was quickly decided to take a complete cross-section of the whole community. Bold as this undertaking may seem, it has been entirely successful.

Throughout the country, all the children born in 1921, and therefore aged about 11 at the time of the inquiry, were examined by means of a group test. As a supplement, one thousand children, intended to form a random but representative sample, were also tested with the Terman Revision of the Binet Scale. The group test used was one which had been prepared by Professor Godfrey Thomson for a scholarship examination in certain English counties. It was revised and supplemented by a pictorial test intended to provide scope for the duller and more backward children.

The number tested amounted to nearly 100,000. One of the most encouraging features of the survey is the ready way in which schools and education committees responded. In spite of the extra burden of work which teachers and officials thus took upon their shoulders, ordinary schools, private schools, residential institutions, all willingly responded. A special debt of gratitude is due, first, to Professor Godfrey Thomson,

who, as chairman of the sub-committees on group-testing and on statistics, has evidently been responsible for some of the most valuable features of the whole work, and secondly to the International Examination Inquiry Committee for contributing to the cost of the survey and report out of their grant from the Carnegie Corporation.

The results are described in full; and incidentally valuable hints are given, not only on the construction of tests for this purpose, but also on the statistical devices to be used in analyzing such data. The correlation between the results of the Binet test and the verbal score in the group test was highly satisfactory—·80 for the boys and ·76 for the girls. Hence we may take it that the group test provided an efficient measure of intelligence as ordinarily understood. The Binet test, the preliminary trials with the group test among English children, and what is called a background study in a special district where the test was applied to three complete age groups, together yield a trustworthy indication of the average mental age of the Scottish population. The group selected for the Binet test would appear to have been slightly above the average. But, making all allowances, the report concludes that the average mental ratio (or I.Q.) of the boys and girls is 100, and the standard deviation 17 for the boys and 16 for the girls. Actually the boys were nearly 3 points ahead in the Binet group, but practically identical in the verbal test. In the verbal test, however, it appeared that the boys were developing at this age a little more rapidly than the girls in the ability measured; but various corrections proved necessary to allow for certain accidental influences. Considering the large number of children from rural districts, the fact that the average I.Q. is almost exactly normal is distinctly encouraging to the Scottish population. It has long been suspected that in general intelligence the range is slightly greater in the male sex than in the female; but it is valuable to have this view so definitely confirmed.

Another problem of importance is the general amount of variability in the whole population, i.e., the size of the standard deviation. The figure usually accepted has been in the neighbourhood of 13 points or rather less. Investigations in London suggested a higher figure. The report now considers that a figure of 16 or 17 is by no means too high. If this suggestion be accepted, and if normal distribution be assumed, this would mean that 3 or 4 per cent. of a given age group were mentally defective in the sense of having an I.Q. of less than 70 points. The numbers officially "ascertained," including the "ineducable" pupils, amount to about 7 per thousand. The minimum proportion suggested by the actual data is "more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent," a figure which tallies

almost exactly with that obtained from psychological surveys in London. In most rural districts in England the proportion would be undoubtedly higher than this ; but an estimate of 3 to 4 per cent is certainly unexpected. It is, of course, offered only as a rough and calculated approximation. Further, the distribution obtained, though roughly fitting a normal curve, suggests that on a closer view the distribution of intelligence may prove to be slightly asymmetrical.

Naturally, by means of a group test it is difficult to estimate exactly the level of individual children towards the lower end of the scale. As was almost inevitable, the picture test was not altogether satisfactory. It yields a correlation of about .3 with the verbal test in certain sample areas. Low as it is, such a coefficient, for a test of the pictorial type, is highly gratifying.

To determine the incidence of mental deficiency, however, a further census will be needed which should be based on individual testing and should include not merely verbal tests but also tests of a " performance " type. Nevertheless, the present survey already emphasizes the fact that low verbal intelligence (if this phrase may be used to describe the kind of ability required by the ordinary school curriculum) is distinctly more prevalent than is generally supposed.

It is difficult to praise too highly both the scheme and the results of the whole undertaking. Hitherto educationists in Scotland have had to depend on investigations in England or America for their assumptions regarding the distribution of general ability. Both the data and the conclusions will be not only of theoretical value to the psychologist and sociologist, but also of practical value to those in Scotland who have to interpret the results obtained by similar examinations carried out in schools or particular districts. The report, too, is of the first interest to every teacher and educationist, and, what is more, provides a solid contribution to the study of social problems.

CYRIL BURT.



BOOK REVIEWS.

An Investigation into the Relation between Intelligence and Inheritance:
By EVELYN M. LAWRENCE, B.Sc., Ph.D. (British Journal of
Psychology Monograph Supplements. Cambridge University Press.
pp. 85. 8s. 6d.)

This is a valuable enquiry based upon the study of children in various types of institutions, homes, or schools. One group, for example, were taken in a Home for Illegitimate Children, the occupations of whose parents could be ascertained. Another group came from an institution which provided homes for orphans and other children who had no one to support them: these came from almost all social classes. Other material was afforded by the results gained by the National Institute of Industrial Psychology consisting of a large number of children leaving some half-dozen schools in a poor part of London. Poor Law schools provided further material. A definite, though not large, correlation was found between the intelligence of the children and the social class of their parents, even when they had never seen those parents. Generally speaking it would seem that the correlation would be higher between social class and intelligence if we omit the extreme classes (i.e., the highest and the very lowest), on account of the usually very small numbers that were given for these classes. There is one other point that might be more borne in mind. Is it not likely that in the case, for example, of illegitimate children those in Class A (the highest social group) of the illegitimate children would not be as representative of that highest group to the same extent that the illegitimate children of the lowest groups might be representative of their group.

There was some evidence that environment affected the test results to some extent, though the children taken from bad homes into the so-called British Homes (a fictitious name) showed practically no increase of intelligence from their improved surroundings. The impression the reviewer gets from this excellent piece of work is rather more definitely in favour of the view that there is hereditary transmission of intelligence and a stronger correlation between social class and intelligence than Dr. Lawrence's own cautious conclusion suggests. Undoubtedly we know, through the selection of clever children from elementary schools, that the children from some of the lowest social classes provide examples of a very high degree of intelligence: on the other hand some of the tables given in the last part of this monograph suggest at first sight an absence of intelligence among the higher classes greater than they should when we bear in mind that the representatives of Class A were very small in number.

The exposition of the monograph is remarkably clear and the tables are admirably arranged. Though Dr. Lawrence herself disclaims finality in view of the smallness of some of her numbers, the work should be very suggestive and helpful to later workers supplementing her enquiry. C.W.V.

The Growth of Reason: By FRANK LORJMER. (Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner and Co., Ltd. pp. 231. 10s. 6d.)

That this book is something more than a study of the development of reason in children is indicated by its sub-title: "A Study of the Role of Verbal Activity in the Growth of the Structure of the Human Mind." The writer's interest, indeed, extends beyond purely psychological aspects: he is a lecturer in social theory and it is in the points of contact between psychology and the development of language and the social functions of thought from the point of view of metaphysics and logic that his interest lies and from which this exposition proceeds. The working out of such border-line problems is of great importance and of no little difficulty. It is, therefore, not surprising if one who is primarily a student of psychology finds the book not very satisfactory from a psychological point of view. The critical and fundamental Chapter III, dealing with the growth of verbal activity in the child, whilst interesting and containing some new points of view, is, on the whole, lacking

in unity. Neither does the chapter indicate very clearly to what the author is leading. Nearly all the material, incidentally, is second hand. There follow chapters on symbolism and meaning, on syntax and abstraction, and these are of special interest as bringing the study of child thought into contact with the study of the grammatical and more logical approach to the study of language. The further exposition of the development of thought in the next chapter includes some reference to Piaget's work and gives the summary of the main factors in the growth of reason. Here, and in the following more philosophical chapters, one feels frequently that the author is expressing in unusual language and somewhat elaborate sentences what could easily be put much more simply. Nevertheless, in view of the necessary difficulties involved in such border-line studies, one feels that this work by Mr. Lorimer is a definite contribution to the study of thought.

The Direct Contribution of Educational Psychology to Teacher Training.
(The University of Chicago Press. pp. 154. 7s. 6d.)

This is the twentieth Year Book of the National Society of College Teachers of Education. It consists of contributions by eleven writers dealing with various aspects of the main topic. One of these refers to the selection of entrants to "Teacher Training" courses. It reveals that this is as acute a problem still in the United States as it is in Great Britain. Professor Gates deals with the place of educational psychology in a general way, in particular dealing with some criticisms and giving a discussion of several different points of view as to the type of psychology which should be given and the stress given to various aspects. An interesting topic is that of Chapter V by F. D. Brooks on "Educational Psychology as Cultural or Functional." The later chapters give some figures showing which courses in the Training College or University were thought to have been most useful by students after they had had some years' experience. Among 114 old students of the University of Kansas the great majority found educational psychology or educational measurements most useful, very few mentioned history of education as the most useful, and the great majority would have liked more time devoted to educational psychology. From another normal school somewhat similar results appear. Here observation of practice teaching was included in the questionnaire and that was placed somewhat before psychology, but not strikingly so. The Report concludes with an extensive bibliography.

The Economy and Technique of Learning: By WM. F. BOOK. (London, D. C. Heath and Co., through G. G. Harrap and Co., Ltd. pp. 534. 10s. 6d. net.)

The book opens with a short section on the "General Nature of the Learning Process," followed by a section devoted to "When and Why Learning Occurs." Having thus dealt with some of the fundamental questions involved the author proceeds to discuss at greater length "How Learning takes place," and "Levels on which Learning may take place." The concluding portion of the book deals very thoroughly with the question of "How to make learning most economical and efficient."

Most students of educational psychology will accept Prof. Book's main assumptions: that educational psychology can be studied with profit only by those who have previously undergone a course of training in psychology; that the educational process is essentially based upon a full understanding of the learning process; and that the very large number of important investigations in relation to the learning process during the last thirty-five years needs careful examination and interpretation.

Prof. Book's volume endeavours to justify this third position, and he has succeeded in summarizing and criticizing many of these important studies. The volume is a useful summary of this important division of educational psychology, and will be welcomed by interested students. There are some important omissions, but, on the whole, it is a very competent work by one who has himself contributed so much to the fuller understanding of the "Technique of Learning." E.C.C.

The Psychology of Character: By RUDOLF ALLERS, M.D. (Sheed and Ward. pp. 383. 16s.)

Dr. Allers is Reader in Psychology at the University of Vienna, and is in general a disciple of Alfred Adler. He is also a Catholic, but it would hardly be correct to say that this book is a blend of individual psychology and Catholic views as to character and its development, for it is much more of an independent psychology as to both sides. The dominant line, however, follows to a considerable extent the views of Adler, and the treatment leads up to the view that the religious sanction is the only final and satisfactory solution of the problems of conflict and character. In the end the conclusion that the Catholic Church is the only community that can provide the adequate stimulus towards such final salvation of character—we use the word salvation in its wide sense—does not seem convincing, and indeed the last chapter seems to be rather written for Dr. Allers' Catholic friends to indicate that he has written nothing inconsistent with Catholic doctrine. And this, so far as a non-Catholic can judge, is probably true.

The book is characterized by a tendency to generalize somewhat freely and to make assertions without giving definite evidence. Many of the statements require careful statistical evidence which is not forthcoming. On the other hand, such hypotheses and generalizations are frequently most suggestive, the exposition is clear, and at many points appear ideas helpful in the treatment of the young and in the adult's understanding of himself. A word of commendation should be paid to the translator, Dr. E. B. Strauss.

Psychology Applied: By G. W. Crane. (Chicago, North-western University Press. pp. 586. 4 dollars.)

This volume is in itself an example of "Psychology Applied," for it is extremely well produced on thick smooth paper, attractively printed, and written in a bright interesting manner. The range of topics discussed is very wide, from "Increasing Human Efficiency" to "Individual and Sex Differences," from "The Psychology of Improving your Personality" to "The Psychology of Music and Morale." The writer has a sound knowledge of his subject and has introduced his readers to several unsuspected applications of psychology. He owes much to the labours and investigations of Prof. Will Scott, but he has read widely in his subject and has the facility of writing easily and appositely. Each chapter is completed by a very full list of references.

Page headings such as "Coaxing and Clubbing," "Hitting the Bull's Eye with your Appeals," may have "selling value." Very dogmatic statements and "Axioms for the Salesman" may "increase sales." The reader will find much to interest him in this book, much to amuse him, and also many presentations which will not be very easily accepted. E.C.C.

Child Psychology: By BUFORD J. JOHNSON. (Bailliere, Tindall and Cox, 7-8, Henrietta Street, Covent Garden, London, W.C.2. pp. 439. 23s.)

This volume is largely a survey of a considerable number of experimental studies dealing with child psychology. It begins with a study of periods of growth and the learning process, followed by a treatment of locomotion, manipulation and speech. Later chapters deal with attention, perception, thought, emotion, social behaviour, and individual differences. One gets the impression that the author is primarily interested in those psychological matters which are closely related to questions of physical growth and capacity. The amount of material surveyed is very considerable and the book should prove a useful guide to the advanced student who wishes to have brief résumés of the contributions of both major and minor writers on various aspects of child psychology. The exposition is, however, far from clear, and indeed the English and the arrangement of the book sometimes suggest that the material has been rather hurriedly put together and inadequately revised. The book includes a considerable number of very useful tables, but these again would be more useful still if their titles had been more explicit.

The Psychology of High School Discipline: By R. W. PRINGLE. (London G. G. Harrap and Co., Ltd. pp. 362. 7s. 6d. net.)

This is the third volume on "The Psychology of the Adolescent" that the Principal of the University High School at Illinois has written. The first two, "Adolescence and High School Problems" and "Methods with Adolescents," reached a high standard, which is well maintained by this "application of psychology to the problems of adolescence by interpreting its latest findings in relation to the conduct control of high school pupils." The author is critical of the older conceptions of discipline, and points out that essentially one is concerned with "understanding the individual involved and must take into account the conditions as they arise." So that he sets out to establish the psychological basis; then he gives suggestions for the application of these psychological principles to specific situations.

The "Psychology of Conduct" is discussed under the chapter headings, "The Endocrine Glands," "Instincts and Impulses," "Habits," "The Will," and "The Group." In this section the writer deals with most of the relevant topics satisfactorily and suggestively. In the second section interesting chapters deal with "Causes of Disorder," "Class Control through Subject Matter," and "Punishments and other means of control."

On the whole the author is to be complimented on giving to those who are directly concerned with the education of the adolescent another interesting and helpful book.

Psychology, a Study of Mental Life: By ROBERT WOODWORTH. Ninth Edition. (Methuen and Co., Ltd. pp. 590. 8s. 6d.)

In this last edition of this well-known text-book the main changes consist in the re-arrangement of material. The more general and familiar topics, such as intelligence and memory, are placed at the beginning, while the nervous system is "reserved till near the end in the hope that it will mean more to the student after he has acquired a stock of psychological knowledge to be tied up with physiology" (page 3, new preface). This in itself is a delightful comment upon the contention that physiology prepares the way for the understanding of psychology. Even now, however, it is perhaps characteristic of the book that while there is no reference in the index to "repression" there are two references to "kidneys."

The book was always a most readable one and the re-arrangement has certainly improved it. Perhaps the main values of Professor Woodworth's book are still first that he writes in an easy style, sometimes perhaps, it might be thought too colloquial (for example that Freud "would not O.K." his theory of dreams), and second that he refuses to be tied down to any particular school of psychology and passes from one to another adopting in each what he finds in it of value.

Taken as a whole the book affords a useful introduction to psychology.

Philosophy of the Sciences: By F. R. TENNANT. (Cambridge University Press. pp. 191. 6s.)

This book comprises the Turner Lectures at Trinity College, Cambridge, for the years 1931 and 1932. The sub-title indicates the main problem of the lectures, namely, "the relations between the departments of knowledge." The first lectures deal with the philosophy of the sciences and the relation of the psychology of knowledge to the philosophy of the sciences. Two further lectures deal with the sciences as "interpretations of historical data" and the relations of history to dogmatic theology and to other departments of knowledge. Readers of this journal are likely to be interested in the importance which Dr. Tennant attaches to psychology in connection with the study of philosophy. He maintains that psychology is fundamental to the study of the theory of knowledge and of philosophy generally; in particular he emphasizes the importance of genetic psychology, even in connection with what are usually assumed to be intuitive and self-evident propositions. The book is written with remarkable clarity and should be a most useful introduction to philosophy, especially for those already with some knowledge of psychology. We need hardly add that it forms a valuable adjunct to theological study.

University of Iowa: Studies in Psychology, No. 15.

This volume of psychological monographs is edited by Christian A. Ruckmick in co-operation with Lee Edward Travis. It contains detailed studies of a somewhat original type, such as "Phonophotographic Analysis of the Vocal Disturbance in Stuttering," "An Action Current and Reflex Time Study of Psychiatric and Neurologic Cases," "Graphic Stuttering," by L. G. Fagan; "Some Common Factors in Reading and Speech," "The Remnant Capacities of the Feeble-minded," and a paper on "Causes of Social Maladjustment in Children" in which a large number of cases are analyzed by Herbert D. Williams. All studies but three have some bearing on the problem of stuttering and to that subject particularly this volume is a useful contribution.

Modern Educational Psychology: By B. N. JHA. (The Indian Press, Ltd., Allahabad.)

As Professor Drever writes in his introduction to this interesting book, there are few books which make available for the student of education the great mass of new psychological material which has a direct and important bearing on education and fewer still written from an impartial and scientific point of view.

Mr. Jha's book is an excellent and useful compilation of well-selected, well-presented material, and can be highly commended to training college lecturers and supervisors of students who feel the need of bringing their own psychological knowledge up to date in so far as new psychological material applies to their work. To all students of education it should prove a useful book for reference. As a text-book it will probably appeal mainly to the most able of the students. The author, after fourteen years of association with the training colleges in the United Provinces of India, would no doubt be one of the first to agree that the average student needs more examples, illustrations, and applications than he has been able to include.

The book is attractively produced with large, clear, pleasing type.

Man as Psychology sees him: By E. S. ROBINSON. (New York, The Macmillan Co. pp. 376. 12s. 6d. net.)

This book is one of the interesting popular presentations of psychology by which the general reader is being attracted to-day. But the Professor of Psychology at Yale University is able to write simply, with a very wide knowledge of the modern developments of the subject, and yet be eminently sound and scientific. The general reader will appreciate the careful attention given to his needs and will be rewarded if he reads the book thoughtfully and critically.

The book is divided into two main divisions "Man: comments on his nature," and "Psychology: its aims, its deeds, its follies." The writer does not avoid the many difficulties involved in writing such a book, and in his analysis of the recent developments preserves a keen sense of values, is critical, and leads the reader carefully and systematically through the maze. Many readers also will enjoy the satisfaction of not agreeing with all the conclusions of the author.

Eidetic Imagery: By E. R. JAENSCH; translated from the Second Edition by OSCAR OESER. (Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner and Co., Ltd. pp. 134. 7s. 6d.)

This book, which has come into our hands somewhat late for review, is a welcome addition to the International Library of Psychology in that it gives for the first time in English a systematic account of the methods and results of investigations made by Professor Jaensch in reference to eidetic images. The book, however, goes much beyond the exposition of these enquiries and it proceeds to link these up with the study of "types" as indicated by the sub-title: "Typological Methods of Investigation." Professor Jaensch holds that eidetic images are symptoms of wider aspects of personality, and indeed he links his psychological position up also with wider philosophical doctrines. In the later part of the book some who readily acknowledge the extraordinary interest and importance of the discovery of eidetic imagery will find it harder to follow Professor Jaensch, but that does not really detract from the interest and importance of the main topic of the book.

The Mind in Daily Life: By R. D. GILLESPIE, M.D., M.R.C.P., D.P.M.
(Methuen and Co., Ltd. pp. 288. 8s. 6d.)

This book by the Physician for Psychological Medicine at Guy's Hospital is divided into two parts, the first called "The Psychology of the Normal" and the second "Errors in Mental Development." In a book which deals so much with abnormal psychology, including such topics as nervous developments, "naughty children," and a number of problems of maladjustment in adolescence, there is naturally not space for a comprehensive treatment of psychology and the book does not profess to give such. Even in Part I the subjects chosen are those of special interest leading up to the study of abnormality. Some sections even of this part are considerably concerned with abnormal individuals, for example the section on Day Dreams.

The book is admirably written, with great clearness, and the many concrete examples add greatly to the interest. It should be particularly useful to medical students and to teachers who are specially interested in child guidance and the study of so-called "problem" children.

Adolescent Girlhood: By MARY CHADWICK. (Allen and Unwin, 1932. pp. 293.)

This book is a popular exposition of the commoner problems of adolescent girlhood, and contains some valuable practical hints concerning the right treatment of girls during the period of rapid development between childhood and maturity. The author frankly recognizes the physical difficulties of the period and their mental concomitants, and her practical advice concerning the avoidance of both overstrain and over-influence in school life is a salutary (if unwelcome) warning to all those engaged in the higher education of girls and women. Her treatment throughout, however, although occasionally suggestive, tends to be uncritical and unscientific. Broad generalisations are frequently drawn from the scantiest data, and there is seldom any precise reference to authorities (historical, medical, psychological, or educational).

The first section of the work is mainly historical, and deals with the adolescent girl among primitive races, in fairy tales, in the past and in the present. The treatment of such a vast subject could not but be incomplete, but this is no reason why the facts considered should not have been selected on adequate guiding principles. That there is a failure of perspective due to the absence of clear principles of selection will be obvious from one typical illustration. In dealing with the nineteenth century some interesting examples of the samplers worked by girls are included, but there is no reference to the founding of Queen's College, Cheltenham Ladies' College, and the schools of the Girls' Public Day Schools Company, nor to the pioneer work of women like Miss Buss and Miss Beale and Miss Emily Davis on behalf of adolescent girls. Yet this movement for the higher education of girls, even if so far it has been too academic and one-sided, has certainly changed the environment and modified the outlook and perhaps even created some of the problems of modern adolescent girls.

The second and third parts of the book, which deal respectively with the problems of the home life and the school life of adolescent girls, are psychological, and mainly Freudian, in character. The exposition is uncritical and the perspective of the author appears to be unduly influenced by her concentration on pathological cases. It is, of course, true that there are girls with physical disabilities, mother-fixations, G.P.'s, and the rest; there are homes where parents are separated, mothers are jealous of their daughters and fathers betray them; there are women teachers in girls' schools who are unhealthy influences because of their own neurotic condition; but to draw a picture of adolescent girlhood solely from the consideration of such cases is certainly unjustifiable. Whatever may have been true of the Victorian era there can be no doubt that under modern conditions the majority of girls enjoy their work and play and the utilization of their growing powers in home and school. They have their problems of various kinds, but they also have the power to solve them; and it is the resolution and not the avoidance of mental conflicts which really constitutes the growing-up process and which eventually brings its own deep-seated satisfaction. O.A.W.

The Education of Visually Handicapped Children : By RALPH VICKERS MERRY, Consultant in Child Guidance, Dayton, Ohio. (Oxford University Press, Amen House, Warwick Square, London, E.C.4. pp. 243. 13s. net.)

The education of visually handicapped children is the subject of Vol. 19 of the Harvard Studies in Education, the author being Ralph Vickers Merry, Consultant in Child Guidance, Dayton, Ohio.

The immediate purposes of this volume are : (1) to clear the ground for further research and progress in the elementary education of visually handicapped children, pointing out the most fundamental problems requiring solution and offering suggestions for their investigation ; (2) to assist teachers of such children to clarify their educational theories and objectives ; (3) to interest research workers from the field of general education in the study of problems peculiar to the visually handicapped.

With this threefold aim the author has given us not a text-book of educational methods but a very able and comprehensive study of a subject presenting many very difficult problems. An attractive characteristic of the book is the moderation shown in advancing theories and in evaluating alternative schemes and methods.

A blind child is defined as one whose vision, after correction, is insufficient to permit his education by visual methods, while a partially seeing child is regarded as one whose vision, after correction, is insufficient to permit him to be educated satisfactorily and with safety in the ordinary school grades but who can make use of special visual methods such as those provided in sight-saving classes.

The first difficulty arises in the consideration of what should be the aims of education, and the author finds little uniformity of ideas among those responsible for the education of these defective children. If education is to equip the individual for complete living, for good citizenship in its widest sense, it seems that in the case of the visually handicapped it must be largely vocational, although the range of occupations should be extended. The object should be to avoid emphasis of the differences of these individuals from the normal but rather to provide means for their normal social development so that eventually they will be absorbed into ordinary society.

An interesting point is the subject of sight-saving classes, or, as they are commonly termed in this country, myope classes. For these schools a special type of classroom and special equipment are advocated, but whatever be the usual school-room in America, the ideal, as here advised for sight-saving purposes, very closely resembles a classroom in an ordinary English elementary school. Most of the children in these classes are suffering from myopia, a disease the cause of which we do not know. In a proportion of cases myopia may be progressive and may lead to grave visual defect or to blindness. There is, however, no certain evidence that myopia is caused, or even aggravated, by school work as such, and it is possible that in progressive cases the greatest good is accomplished by attention to general health and education on the lines of an open-air school.

The value of these sight-saving schools should, it seems, be judged by three criteria : (1) the extent to which they can be proved to conserve vision ; (2) the educational achievement of children so taught ; (3) the extent to which they may be adjudged to have taught the hygiene of vision, for probably these children incur most of their visual damage when beyond school influence.

All these points are adequately discussed in the present book. We find, too, a very useful survey of the psychological problems peculiar to the blind and the characteristics and attainments requisite in their teachers. A book which should achieve its aim in stimulating thought and which will repay close study.

J.R.M.

Life and the Public Schools : By the RT. REV. A. A. DAVID, Bishop of Liverpool. (Alexander Maclehose and Co. pp. x+239. 10s. 6d.)

This book should appeal to a much wider circle than those immediately concerned with the public school. It is the result of the experience and reflection of one who has been head master of two great schools (Rugby and Clifton), and who,

some years after leaving the work of the school, recorded the results of that experience and reflection. It is, we hope, a significant sign of the times that such a head master, who entered on his work without any special training for the work of teaching, and without having thought out a philosophy or psychology of education, should feel the need of doing this for his own satisfaction even after his actual work had been concluded. The ordinary head master, as he says, is so busy with the affairs of his school that "in regard to the philosophy of his work and the ideas that lie behind it he lives very much from hand to mouth." (Preface.)

It is a matter of gratification that Dr. David has not only found time to do this but has done it so courageously and frankly. Here we see the movement of an able mind, involved in the routine of education on traditional lines, slowly turning towards better and more rational ideals and methods.

The book includes chapters dealing with "Subjects, methods, and boys," "Authority, conduct, and character," and, finally, with the religious aspect of education.

The chapters dealing with development of method will, no doubt, seem somewhat commonplace to those whose business it is to deal constantly with modern developments in the teaching of various subjects; but they are remarkable and notable as being the conclusions of a head master in the work of a great school.

Dr. David pays a remarkable testimony to the value of the training of teachers when he says (page 65): "It is certain that had I been trained to teach before my experience began, I should have arrived at something like my present outlook thirty years ago, and might have saved myself and spared my many victims the consequences of mistakes innumerable." He lays his finger upon the chief difficulty in the development and progress of some schools. "On the staff of almost every public school are men who have escaped the cramping influence of the old, and in the face of disapproval and discouragement have not been afraid to maintain and exercise their faith in the new. But the fact remains that the greatest obstacle to the development of teaching in the interest of the taught is to be found in the teachers" (page 65).

The book contains many wise observations, and is, as we should expect, marked by high ideals. It is a valuable contribution to practical matters in education. My only serious criticism is that there is no index.

C.W.V.

The Platoon School in America: By ROSCOE D. CASE. (Stanford University Press, California. English publisher, Humphrey Milford, Oxford University Press. pp. 283 13s. 6d.)

This is a comprehensive account of the Platoon School, a type of organization which is now widely used, though under somewhat varying forms, in the United States of America. The author points out that the Platoon School plan is primarily a method of organization, though it is a development of the Gary plan, and like the Gary plan, has behind it a good deal of the educational philosophy of Dewey.

The Platoon School is divided into two groups called platoons, one platoon dealing with the fundamental subjects in what are called the "home-rooms," roughly equivalent to what in some English schools we should call the "form" classroom; the other platoon is meanwhile engaged with "activity" subjects in special rooms.

The idea is not a new one in America so far as the distinction between the class or form room with a form master, and special rooms for special subjects are concerned; and in England we have of course long been familiar with the organization of schools in which one master takes certain subjects with his class, which goes to special teachers for subjects such as art, music, foreign languages, etc.

After the historical treatment this book deals with the main organization; the material, the staff, the library, the correlation of programmes and projects, and "comparative costs." It will thus be seen that the book is primarily of interest from the point of view of administration and organization rather than that of psychological principles involved in the scheme, though these appear from time to time.

The First Two Years: A Study of Twenty-five Babies: By MARY M. SHIRLEY. (The University of Minnesota Press. pp. 513. \$3.00.)

This is the second volume of Professor Shirley's work which deals with the whole development of infants for the first two years, Vol. I having dealt with postural and locomotor development. Vol. III, dealing with personality manifestations, is still to appear.

In a review of the first volume in this journal I have already indicated the method of study adopted (see Vol. III, page 94). In the present volume Professor Shirley deals, first, with the development of specific behaviour traits, including the beginning of speech, and growth of comprehension. The second and most substantial part of the book deals with the actual psychological examination, and partly with the nature of tests which are given by the experimenter herself. This is, perhaps, the most valuable part of this volume, as it is not subject to the very considerable doubtfulness which attaches to the reports of parents on their children, even when very specific questions are put to them. The special value of the part dealing with the tests lies, it seems to me, in the very concrete and detailed way in which the observations are made. This value does not lie chiefly in the statistical records or tables but in the full report of the very various types of responses made by the infant to the same test, revealing in some cases, for example, that a failure to score in the test in the ordinary routine way is due, not to some defect, but to some positive capacity or quality. Thus one child failed in the ordinary grasping of toys test simply because he was so vivacious and lively and preferred to knock the toys about! This second part of the book occupies nearly 300 pages.

The last part is a more theoretical discussion of considerable interest dealing with persistence in rate of development. Here Professor Shirley makes some very valuable suggestions as to the principles of behaviour development, emphasizing in particular variations in the speed of development of different factors.

The book is further evidence of the importance of a continued observation of the same child over a long period if we are to establish definite principles of development.

C.W.V.

An Introduction to the Computation of Statistics: By SHEPHERD DAWSON. (University of London Press. pp. 192. 10s. 6d. net.)

This book is intended for laboratory workers, whether students of psychology, physiology, biology, medicine, or education. An excellent feature is the care which the author has taken to elucidate the *actual* processes of calculation. In a book of this kind there is no need to give proofs of underlying theorems and the author has wisely followed the lead of Garrett, Holzinger, and others in this respect, and his readers are advised to consult standard treatises for proofs. Occasionally proofs are given but always the meanings of the values calculated are sufficiently indicated as to make the treatment illuminating.

The exercises at the end of each chapter have been selected with admirable judgment and the absence of errors is a sure sign of the arduous nature of its preparation.

Chapter 1 deals with Tabulation; Chapter 2 with Measures of Central Tendency; and Chapter 3 with Measures of Dispersion and Skewness. These chapters form a third of the book and should not prove difficult even to the beginner. Chapter 4 on Sampling forms another third, and Chapter 5, the final chapter, deals with Correlation. Parts of these two chapters, as would be expected, will prove somewhat tough to the weaker brethren. Critics of examinations may not all agree that the two assumptions on page 26 are "quite reasonable," and the name of the author of the tests of musical capacity might have been mentioned on page 31.

When a second edition is demanded perhaps the author will consider the advisability of enlarging it so as to include some mention of tetrad analysis, and also of some useful variations of the methods of calculating correlations to suit particular cases.

The logical arrangement of the material is well conceived. Without a doubt the author has succeeded in his aim and the book should prove exceedingly useful to statistical workers.

L. W. J.

Class Grouping in the Primary School: By H. S. WYNDHAM. (Melbourne, Melbourne University Press; London, Macmillan and Co. 6s.)

Defects of Speech in School Children: By H. T. PARKER. (Melbourne, Melbourne University Press, in association with Oxford University Press. 4s.)

These two slight volumes are useful additions to the Educational Research Series which reports the investigations carried out through the Australian Council for Educational Research and with the assistance of grants from that Council. The whole series is a valuable record of useful research.

The former of these two reports an investigation carried out in 1930 and 1931 in the schools of Sydney; the investigator set out to determine the principles underlying class-grouping in the schools; the organization of these class-groups; the results of these; and what changes, if any, in this organization might be advisable and possible. The investigation is very fully reported and some interesting and important recommendations are made, including the increased use of intelligence tests, and "the use of mental age as the major determinant of class-grouping for the central group of the school population."

In H. T. Parker's book we have the results of an investigation into the question of speech defects among the children in the State Schools of Tasmania. Most of the common defects are carefully considered, their frequency and distribution among the school population are clearly presented by charts and statistics, and useful and valuable recommendations are made to attack and solve some of the problems involved.

Applied Psychology for Advertisers: By A. P. BRADDOCK, M.A., B.Sc. (The Library of Advertising, Butterworth and Co., Ltd. pp. xvi+236. 7s. 6d. net.)

This book is a companion volume to the author's "Psychology and Advertising," published in the same series, and in it the psychological principles developed in the earlier work are applied to the practical art of advertising.

The subject matter covers a wide range; thus instinct, humour, beauty, posters, slogans, sky signals, and salesmanship are a few of the twenty-three chapter headings.

The book is written throughout with a well-balanced, detached, scientific outlook, which should form a useful corrective to the sometimes over-exuberant enthusiasm of the professional advertiser or salesman; in addition, it is easy to read, for the text is well paragraphed and the literary style admirable.

The title of the book suggests that its appeal would be only to those engaged in the advertising profession. Those, however, who are interested in an analysis of their own—or others'—weaknesses, should find much pleasure from its perusal, and if to be forewarned is to be forearmed, if a knowledge of one's irrationalities increases one's resistance to the insidious suggestions of the professional advertiser, to that extent does one become a more civilized individual and perhaps at the same time a less poor one.

Whether the General Editor of a Library of Advertising would approve of such a result from his activities is of course open to question! W.G.E.

The Growing Child: A Series of Five Lectures on Child Management. Published for the Australian Council for Educational Research. (Melbourne University Press. pp. 72. 2s.)

Lectures to parents ought to combine in due proportion sound advice, simplicity, and spiritual uplift drawn from the better-known poets. This series fulfils the requirements. The lectures on the child in the family, at school, and in the community are followed by two on the importance of habit and the growth of character. The first essay is the best, because it contains the largest amount of thoughtful advice, but the whole series must have been useful and enlightening to the audience for which they were intended. M.S.

Memorandum on the Teaching of Religious Knowledge in Secondary Schools: By THE RELIGIOUS KNOWLEDGE PANEL OF THE ASSOCIATION OF ASSISTANT MISTRESSES. (University of London Press, Ltd. pp. 20. 1s. net.)

This memorandum is based on the conviction that only on the strength of sound learning can loss of faith in the adult (or profitless emotionalism) be combatted. The suggested syllabuses, which include those both for elementary and secondary school age, are well designed to further the aim (stated by the writers) of Scripture teaching in school, viz., to give the pupils "a conception of the Bible as a whole, as being the record of God's gradual revelation of Himself to man;" at the same time they are wide enough to give the individual teacher scope and variety.

The teacher who wishes to improve her qualifications for teaching Scripture is introduced to an excellent reading list and is told where she can buy models and pictures indispensable to the teaching of children at the preparatory stage. Information is given concerning theological degrees and diplomas open to women.

All teachers who care for religious education are advised to read the pamphlet.
M.H.

The Nature of Learning in its relation to the Living System: By GEORGE HUMPHREY. (Kegan Paul, Trench, Trubner and Co. pp. 292. 15s. net.)

No two situations in the world can ever be precisely alike, hence the problem of learning is so complex that it can be dealt with only by assuming the presence in each situation of a sufficient number of elements to enable the detection of some similarity to what has gone before and in a constantly changing world chaos is thus avoided. But there are degrees of power to detect likeness. What is chaos to one creature presents features of a system to another; above all, man is able to pass to the appreciation of abstractions and symbols without bewilderment.

Dr. Humphrey has produced a thesis which sets out the nature of learning in its relation to the living system. The doctrine of Gestalt here appears treated in a philosophic spirit in its specific relation to learning. Amongst other matters the work attempts to correct the tendency towards the simple idea of mere repetition in the learning process. The treatment is for the advanced student, but there are numerous references with an extensive bibliography and the thesis as a whole has attractive features for students of psychology.
A.P.B.

Alcohol and Man: Edited by HAVEN EMERSON, M.D. (The Macmillan Co., New York. pp. 451. 18s.)

This is a useful volume, summarizing a vast amount of recent research into the effects of alcohol. The book is divided into six parts, the first being on the general effect of alcohol; the second on the effects of alcohol on the cell and in heredity. Part III deals with alcohol as a poison and a medicine; Part IV with body resistance and pathology; Part V is psychological, dealing with the effect on conduct and mental condition, and the last part deals with longevity, mortality, and morbidity. The value of the many contributions naturally varies, but generally they are clearly written and the exposition is such as to make the book suitable for the use of the general reader and the psychologist as well as for the professional medical man. The references are very full and the book should prove a useful introduction to more detailed studies by the student of physiology and hygiene.

The statements of individual authors are made on their own responsibility, but, apparently, the whole book has been submitted to the revision not only of the general editor but of a board of associate editors, including on the psychological side Professor Walter R. Miles, of Yale University.

William James Ashley: a Life: By his daughter ANNE ASHLEY. (P. S. King and Son, Ltd., Orchard House, Westminster. pp. 176. 8s. 6d.)

Sir William Ashley occupied an important place in the development of commercial education in this country during the last half century, and this well-written and restrained appreciation of his personality and work will be of interest to all concerned with education and particularly with the relation between education and commerce or industry. The chapter contributed by Professor Muirhead deals especially with Ashley's progressive work in the University of Birmingham in connection with the Faculty of Commerce, and with social studies in which he was especially interested. In addition this book has its own value as a study of an energetic, broad-minded and kindly personality.

Diary of a Child's Life: By VILHELM RASMUSSEN. (Gyldendal, London. p.p. 187. 6s.)

This little book is a record of the development of the second child of the author, who wrote his "Child Psychology" and the "Kindergarten Child" mainly on the basis of observations on his eldest child. As diaries of children in their first years by competent observers are rare, we welcome this addition to the study of early child psychology—indeed, this volume goes up to the age of fifteen. Many of the facts are stated with great preciseness, but unfortunately a number are somewhat general and vague for the purposes of genetic psychology, for which it is so important that the exact circumstances of the behaviour of the child should be noted.

Comenius in England: By ROBERT FITZGIBBON YOUNG. (Ox. Univ. Press. pp. 99.)

This is described as "the visit of Jan Amos Komensky (Comenius), the Czech Philosopher and Educationist, to London in 1641-1642; its bearing on the origins of the Royal Society, on the development of the Encyclopædia, and on plans for the higher education of the "Indians of New England and Virginia." With such a sub-title there would seem to be little need for further description of the scope of this volume. Five years ago Mr. Young published a brochure on some phases of Comenius' career that were not widely known, and the book now put before the public contains matter that will amply repay the student who takes an interest in origins and especially in the contacts between great men of the period.

Mr. Young gives ten Documents with his own footnotes and references, in addition to a nine-page introduction. The illustrations are interesting and there is a useful table of dates indicating the development of seeds with whose sowing Comenius had so much to do.

A.P.B.

The Effect of Unfamiliar Settings on Problem-Solving: By WILLIAM A. BROWNELL, with the assistance of LORENA B. STRETCH. (Duke University Press, Durham, N.C. pp. 86. 5s.)

This is the first of the Duke University Published Series of Researches in Education. After a review and criticism of earlier attacks on the problem, an interesting and carefully devised experiment is described, in which arithmetic problems were given, dealing with perfectly familiar material, and then problems involving the same number-relationships, but referring to concrete objects of increasingly unfamiliar kind. The conclusion of chief value seems to be that those children who are most successful in dealing with the operations when problem settings are relatively familiar to them, experience, on the average, no great difficulty in choosing the operations when the problem-settings are strange to them.

The authors raise the problem (without suggesting that they give definite evidence) as to whether the freeing of number concepts from definite imagery may not be hindered by supplying children only with problems dealing with materials which are within their own experience.

The School in English and German Fiction : By W. R. HICKS. (London : The Soncino Press, 1933. pp. 138. 6s. net)

This book should be not only of great interest but of genuine value to students of education in England and Germany. For though, as the author recognizes, the novelist is apt to depict the exceptional and extreme, such sketches have their significance. Dr. Hicks also checks the "facts" as given in the novels by reports of the heads of schools and of other writers in both countries.

The book is well arranged and well documented, with a good bibliography. The English section begins with Dickens and concludes with a chapter on the public school in fiction.

The author wrote the sections on Germany after a "fairly long residence in Germany," where the original materials gathered were presented as a dissertation at the University of Erlanger. They include a chapter on "The Background in Germany" and many paragraphs are of special interest at the present time.

Group Tests for Colour Blindness : By Dr. MARY COLLINS and Professor JAMES DREVER. (University of London Press. 10s. 6d.)

This is a convenient test which can be used for a group of children at the same time. It was prepared for the Scottish Council for Research in Education and should prove a most useful means of giving rapidly a preliminary test for colour blindness to large numbers of children. It is in a handy form with a case well adapted for preserving the diagrams. It is so simple that it could be applied by any teacher without special knowledge as to colour-blindness.

Public Schools : their Failure and their Reform : By L. B. PEKIN. (The Hogarth Press. pp. 224. 7s. 6d.)

This book is by a former teacher in public schools and reveals intimate knowledge of the working of certain types of public schools. It indicates a profound disbelief in some of the main tenets of public school life, particularly its forms of punishment, the fagging system, the segregation of the sexes and the curriculum. Some of the indictments seem overstressed. We cannot agree, for example, with the sweeping assertion that corporal punishment invariably involves humiliation and the desire for revenge. Nor should we be prepared to accept the dogmatic statement that public school masters are, to a large extent, emotionally homosexual. These two assertions illustrate the readiness to generalize which characterizes the book. However, in spite of this, the argument is, on the whole, very trenchant, and the book is admirably written. We expect that Mr. Pekin will make many converts : and however much teachers may disagree with some of the particular conclusions, few could read the book without finding it a stimulant and without a broadening of outlook.

Occupations in Victoria : By G. R. GILES and JOHN R. LYALL. (Melbourne Univ. Press, 1932. pp. 79. 4s.)

A study is recorded in this booklet of the seasonal and annual variations of employment in various industries in Victoria, Australia ; the bearing of the results on vocational guidance is discussed.

The Growth of Freedom in Education : By W. J. MCCALLISTER, M.A., Ph.D., B.Sc. (Constable. 15s.)

We welcome a new edition of this valuable book at a lower price. It is now clearer than ever that Professor McCallister's scholarly treatment, both historical and critical, of the idea of freedom in education will remain for long the standard work on the subject.

FOREIGN JOURNALS.

Zeitschrift für Pädagogische Psychologie, 34 Jahrgang, Nr. 4-5, April-May, 1933.

Wilhelm Arp writes on the conceptions of the State among young people, "Die Auffassungen vom Staat bei Jugendlichen." It is agreed that adolescents are no longer limited by their experience of visible evidence in their environment but can deal intellectually with abstractions and the relations between ideas. Deliberately this material has been collected from proletarian youths in a trade school and without necessarily accepting the idea that their only duty as citizens would be to follow the instructions of upper-class youth. The question reads: "How do you think about the word 'State,' (Woran denkst Du bei dem Worte 'Staat?')". The answers are mainly from apprentices, aged 15+, 16+, 17+, 18+. Occupation of the father is stated, also political affiliation (Socialist, Democratic, etc.). Sample answers are classified, arranged, and elucidated so that the implications of the expressions may be understood. The various ideas of the State, imagined or imaginary, are then displayed—the robber-bandit state, the capitalist-conspiracy state, the law-and-order state, the culture state, the racial state, the unlimited state, the limited state, the social-contract state, the Socialist welfare state, etc.

H.R.

Zeitschrift für Pädagogische Psychologie: Nr. 7-8. July-August, 1933.

Hermann Weil: *Ergebnisse einer Umfrage zur Psychologie der Schullüge*. Here are results of a general inquiry on the practice of lying in schools and the motives for lies. A questionnaire was submitted to 111 boys and 117 girls in the highest forms—Prima and Secunda. The answers in sealed envelopes were collected by scholars, and did not pass through the perusal of the staff. Some 644 examples of lies are discussed. These fall rather readily into classes. Thus "social lies," as for example, to save a comrade, 23 per cent; lies in fear of punishment, 17 per cent; lies of convenience, 10 per cent; bragging, 6 per cent; fear of being ridiculous, 5 per cent; and very rare, 1.2 per cent, are "anti-social lies" tending to bring trouble on another person. The girls give slightly different percentages, their ambitions accounting for 20 per cent of their lies. If in lower classes a boy sometimes lies to the prejudice of his school fellows, in the higher classes the tone is quite different, there is marked loyalty to the class community and lies to save comrades are not regretted. The girls are emphatic that with growth of confidence between teacher and taught fear vanishes. If lies cannot be extirpated they can at least be minimized in a régime of confidence. Verbal discussion of these problems in Prima (Form VI) proved very profitable.

H.R.

Zeitschrift für Pädagogische Psychologie. Nr. 9. September, 1933.

Professor Dr. A. Hoffmann of Erfurt writes on the significance of heredity and the foundations of educational anthropology illuminated by research on twins. Physical measurements are given to show the extreme resemblances in one case of twins and in one case of triplets. The school marks of the twins through eight half-years are also shown in a condensed graphic form which makes clear how they resemble each other in their good, average and bad subjects.

Rudolf Fendler deals with performances in German (or as we might say in English subjects) in arithmetic and the cultural milieu of the school child. Seven hundred and seventy-five children were grouped as 47 children of Akademiker and Lehrer, 160 children of Beamten, 156 children of Gewerbetreibenden and 412 children of Arbeiter. Each group was again classified separately in German and in arithmetic according to whether marks were more than genügend, genügend, or less than genügend. In German the academic group show 81 per cent above satisfactory, the workers' group only 41 per cent. In arithmetic the academic group show only 62 per cent above satisfactory, whilst the labour group reach 56 per cent, and the tradesmen 69 per cent. The conclusion is that performance in German depends on domestic environment far more than that in arithmetic. Command of language is essential to the success of daily work for Akademiker.

The new editor, Professor Oswald Kroh of Tübingen, contributes a leading article on the task of scientific educational psychology in relation to the national state. Under book reviews Professor Dr. A. Hoffmann reflects the torrent of recent popular works on heredity and eugenics.

H.R.

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